

THE GEOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE

VOLUME VII, NO. 1

ONE SHILLING MONTHLY

MAY 1938

THE SCOT AND THE EMPIRE by **A. G. Macdonell**

MOUNT HORNE: The Port of Glasgow

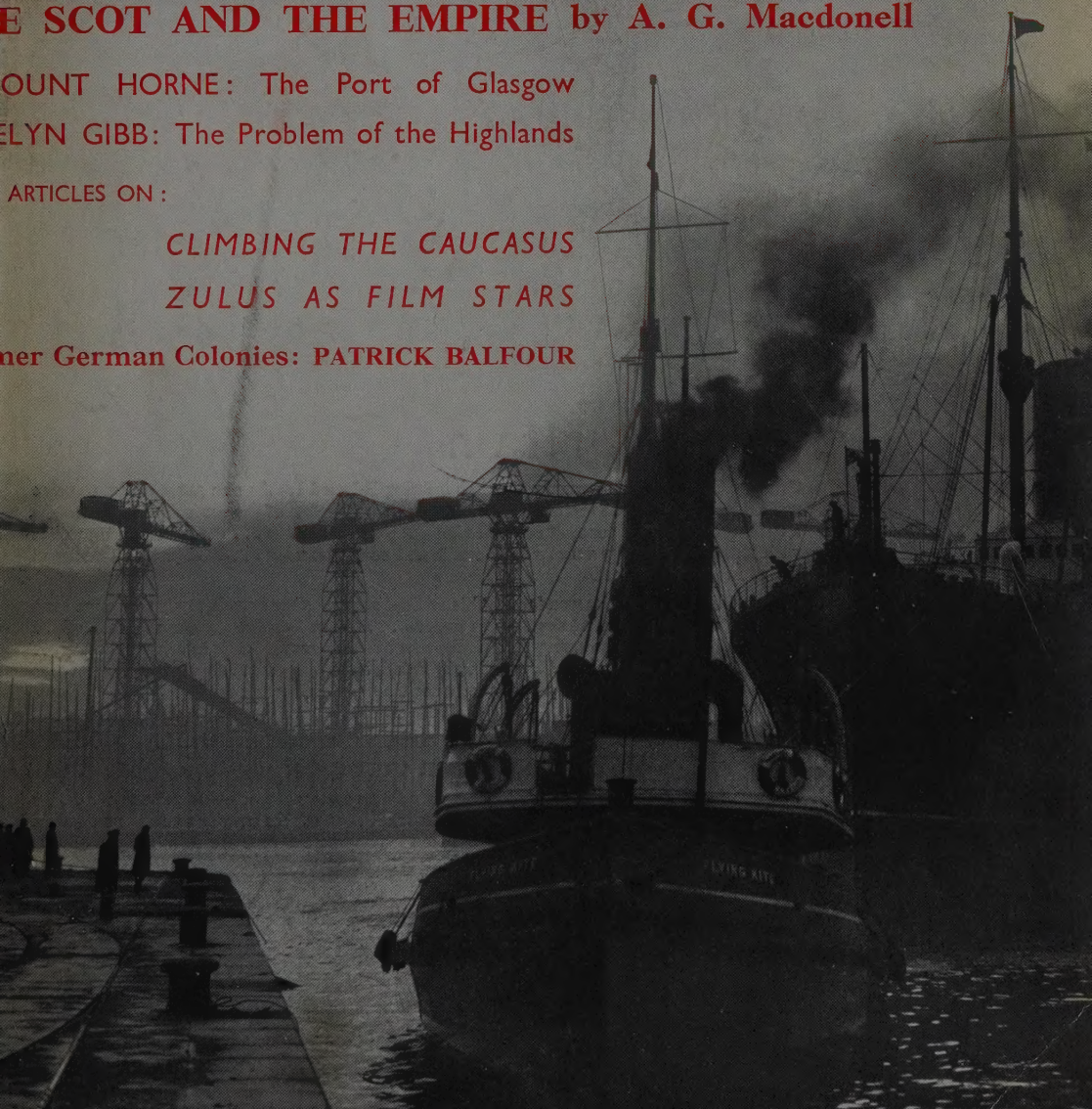
ELYN GIBB: The Problem of the Highlands

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German Colonies: **PATRICK BALFOUR**





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Editor

Michael Huxley

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Imprisoned and forlorn, the dying Shah Jahan had one gem of consolation . . . his beloved wife's Taj Mahal, flawless then as it is to-day

For fourteen years, through all the excitement of winning an Emperor's throne, then amid the glitter and intrigue of the richest Court in the East, Mumtaz Mahal held Shah Jahan's unceasing love. At thirty-nine she died; the lord of Hindustan was prostrate. He resolved to build her a Memorial such as men had never seen before. He summoned architects, builders and sculptors, he brought jasper from Persia, onyx from the mountains, lapis from Ceylon, gold stone from Arabia. All were fashioned into a requiem in marble,

white and unearthly by the majestic Jumna. Opposite he planned his own tomb in jet black marble with a silver bridge between the two, so that he and his beloved might meet and commune for ever. But his treacherous son seized the Peacock Throne while he died in the Jasmine Tower at Agra . . . with his eyes upon the Taj.

See Shah Jahan's masterpiece as he loved it . . . catching the pink of sunrise, silvery in the tropic moonlight. Every foot of India is hallowed ground . . . visit India and you turn back the brightest pages of history.

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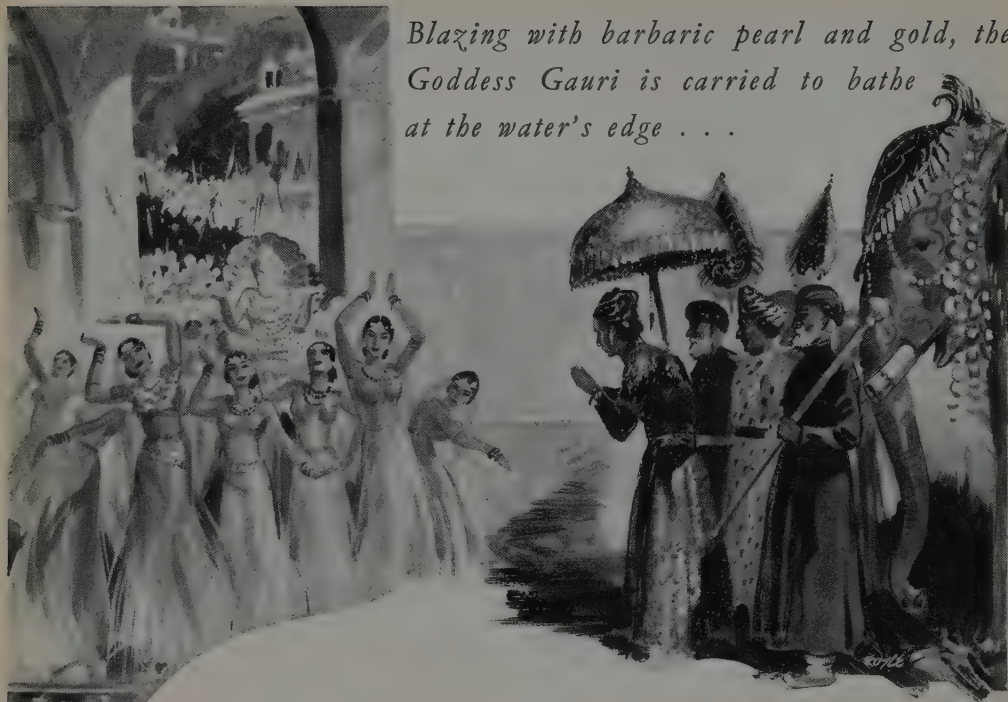
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*Blazing with barbaric pearl and gold, the
Goddess Gauri is carried to bathe
at the water's edge . . .*



. . . a festival celebrated to this day in lovely Udaipur

The stage is set . . . blue skies and a lake of deeper blue broken only by the cool green foliage and the dazzling white of Udaipur's marble palaces, rising sheer from the water. All around are the townspeople and beyond them the mountains, their craggy peaks reflected in the unruffled waters of the lake. By the gaily-coloured boats, the Rana of Udaipur and his nobles await Gauri, the Goddess of Abundance and harvests. First come young girls chanting hymns; then the

Goddess on her throne, arrayed in gorgeous yellow robes, ablaze with jewels, and with a gay-clad retinue. Neither scene nor ritual have changed for many a hundred years; yet here is no outworn relic of tradition . . . festivals such as this and the Juggernaut at Puri or Dasara at Mysore are part of India's very life. To you, they will be sudden glimpses of a world long lost, scenes whose colour and intensity are unforgettable.

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Ala-ud-din, the Afghan conqueror, desired the beautiful Padmini, Queen of Chitor. He laid siege to the great Rajput city, proud and secure on its hilltop, and by treachery captured Padmini's husband so that he might demand her in return. She arrived with pomp, seven hundred hooded palanquins bearing the ladies of her retinue; but when Ala-ud-din came gleefully to interrupt husband and wife's parting embrace, out of the palanquins sprang

seven hundred Rajput swordsmen who cut a way for Padmini through the Afghan's camp. Ala-ud-din took his vengeance upon Chitor; he found it a noble city and left it a hilltop tomb... empty as you will find it to-day, with the jungle creeping up the steep slopes into fair palaces and pleasant gardens where once lived the great Rajputs, proudest of India's proud races.

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The Problem of the Highlands

by JOCELYN GIBB

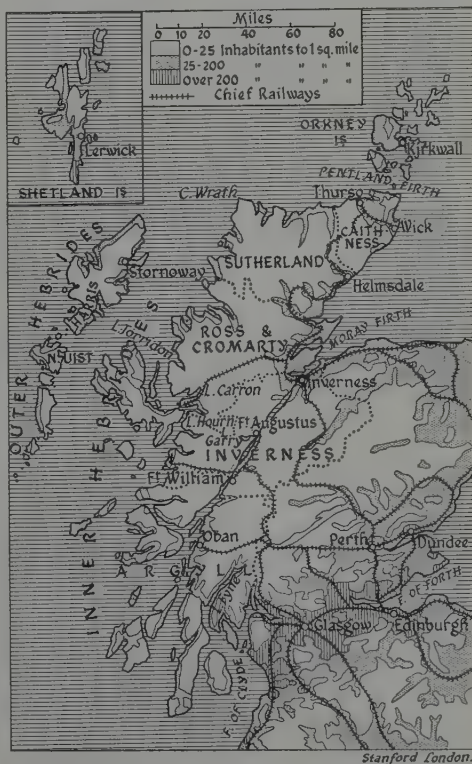
In his article on 'The Scot and the Empire', Mr Macdonell shows to what purpose the energies of the disarmed clansman and the evicted crofter have been exerted overseas. Behind them they have left a problem, the origin, actualities and possible solution of which are herein examined by Mr Gibb, himself the owner of a Highland sheep-farm

PROGRESS, in its relentless march, always tends to leave behind it certain people who, for some reason or other, are unable to keep the pace. They must either catch up or perish. It is nothing less than a tragedy that such a danger, the danger of extinction, at present besets the people of the Highlands of Scotland. Through no fault of their own, they are gradually dwindling in numbers and, unless drastic steps are taken very soon, there will be nothing but ruins and bracken to show where this fine race once thrived. The towns will survive, but the rural population will vanish, probably never to return.

The Highlands and Islands are usually regarded as consisting of seven counties: Argyll, Inverness, Ross and Cromarty, Sutherland, Caithness, Orkney and Shetland, and the problem with which they are faced is one of increasing urgency: depopulation. The following figures show the rate at which it is increasing. In 1891, the aggregate population of these seven counties was 360,367; in 1911, it was 341,535; in 1931, 293,139. That is to say a drop of 18,832 in the first twenty years, and one of 48,396 in the second.

Rural depopulation is, of course, not confined to the Highlands; the steady flow of country folk to the towns has long been causing alarm all over Great Britain. But what is perhaps its primary cause—lack of the amenities and social services that the townsman nowadays claims as a birthright—operates in the sparsely populated Highlands with peculiar intensity. For the above-mentioned counties, with a total of under 300,000 inhabitants, comprise nearly one-fifth of the whole area of Great Britain.

They are unable, out of their own resources or even with the aid of considerable Government grants, to compete in respect of communal expenditure with more closely settled agricultural areas, still less with the great cities. Whereas, for example, a rate of a penny in the pound brings in only £291 in Sutherland, it produces about £2000 in Midlothian and £45,000 in Glasgow. Thus a vicious circle has been established: the more people drift away from the Highlands, the more



Stanford London.



Robert M. Adam

The depopulation of the Highlands, now threatening a fine race with extinction, began after 1745 with evictions which spread ruin through the glens. The remains of a crofter's home, Loch Torridon

difficult it becomes for those who are left behind to maintain even the existing services.

Moreover, the depopulation problem in the Highlands has other peculiarities; some historical, some economic. Its roots go back to the period immediately after the Jacobite rising of 1745. At that time the clan system was still in force; self-contained and practically self-supporting communities still lived under the paternal jurisdiction of their hereditary chieftains. It is true that these sometimes exerted their almost unlimited powers oppressively, as in the case of the two great chiefs of Skye who, when short of cash, forcibly deported over a hundred of their tenantry for sale to the plantations of Pennsylvania. But, on the whole, clan sentiment remained an effective bond between chiefs and clansmen, imposing on the former duties corresponding to their rights, until by the

Acts passed after the '45 the rights were removed and the chiefs, becoming mere landlords, came to regard themselves as relieved of their patriarchal responsibilities.

Thus, when the Lowland sheep graziers tempted the Highland landowners with offers of increased rents that their small-holding tenants could not afford to pay, the temptation proved in most cases too great, and the 'clearances' or evictions of the crofters began. Well into the 19th century these 'clearances' continued, often in circumstances of great cruelty; many of the crofters were literally burnt out of their homes. A stranger wandering in Highland glens will sometimes wonder at the number of ruined cottages which are to be seen. A patch of extra-green grass, some bracken, a few stones and perhaps a rowan or a silver-birch tree, are all that is left of what was once a home. Often there are whole villages

like this. Nearly all these ruins were the homes of the Highlanders who were evicted to make room for large sheep-farms.

But the sheep-farms themselves became less remunerative as the price of wool fell with the growth of wool imports from Australia, often from sheep raised by Highland emigrants; and the Highland proprietors turned to a new source of revenue in the letting of deer 'forests' and, to a lesser extent, grouse-moors, to wealthy folk from the south. Increasingly large rents were offered: Sir Murdoch MacDonald mentioned recently in the House of Commons that a small portion of a deer-forest, the whole of which was let in his childhood for £50 a year, had

subsequently been let for £4000 a year. Thus the tendency of proprietors to turn other lands into deer-forests was not unnatural. In his book *The Highlands and Isles of Scotland*, Mr W. C. Mackenzie quotes figures to show that the area under deer increased from 1,709,892 acres in 1883 to 3,584,966 acres in 1912. How much of this area could ever have been, or could now be converted into crofter holdings is a matter of dispute. Certainly, as Mr Mackenzie states, the deer-forests at the height of their popularity 'brought money and employment to the localities concerned'.

That popularity, however, has not survived the economic depression, which accentuated the effect of changes in sporting



Seton Gordon

The first evictions were due to the creation of large sheep-farms; others followed later when, with the decline of the wool trade, millions of acres were turned into deer-forests



Violet Banks

The Highland crofts have never enabled their inhabitants to live luxuriously; and the crofter's family now demands amenities and social services that the land will not support without capital expenditure from outside. (Above) A crofter's cottage in the Outer Hebrides; (below) an Argyllshire croft

Robert M. Adam





Robert M. Adam

Robert M. Adam

Every member of the family has to work hard to wring a living from the croft. Mother turns out for the hay-making—

—and daughters lose no moment that can be devoted to knitting, even though they cannot afford to wear stockings themselves. There is nothing to spare for modern improvements



fashions. Landlords can no longer let their forests at rents sufficient to cover the incidence of rates and taxes and death-duties, and consequently big estates are continually in the market. 'Rather more than one-fourth of the total area of deer-forests in Scotland came under the hammer' in 1935 and early in 1936. The old owners who were genuinely interested in the welfare of the people are rapidly disappearing; and the decrease in value of the properties means that they cannot be rated so high, to the detriment of local public revenues. Through lack of proper control on the part of the forest owners (although Ross-shire is a notable exception to this) the deer are over-running farms and crofts, causing great trouble. Most deer forests are unfenced and the cost of fencing against deer is high. Thus, when they become too numerous, the deer just wander out of the forests onto sheep grazings and sometimes over arable farms.

Another crime attributed to the deer is that they spread ticks, a scourge which has recently been causing untold havoc among the sheep. Experiments are being made, but so far no proper preventative or remedy for the tick seems to have been discovered. No wonder that noble animal, the red deer, is growing more and more unpopular!

So, for the landlord, the wheel has come full circle. The few, who were enriched at the expense of the many, are now themselves impoverished. And what of those crofters who remain? The report of a Royal Commission appointed in 1883 to inquire into the causes of agrarian disturbance in the Highlands led to the passing of the Crofters' Holdings Act of 1886, the object of which, as of subsequent Acts and amendments, was to provide the Highlander with an inalienable piece of land so that he could live as a small farmer and be self-supporting. The administrative body in these matters is now the Scottish Board of Agriculture, to which applications for new holdings and the

abandonment or enlargement of old holdings are made, all land questions that call for adjudication being dealt with by a Land Court. In theory the Land Court is supposed to ensure that the crofter is cultivating his croft properly. But his difficulty in making a living out of his croft, in view of low prices, long distances from markets and high freight charges is usually so great that the law is seldom rigorously enforced, and, except in the most blatant of cases, the Land Court is lenient.

In his dispirited state of mind, the crofter tends to keep an eye open for someone else in his district for whom he can work long enough to get his unemployment insurance card stamped and go on the dole for a time. This, however, is only a temporary palliative and is in many ways demoralizing. It leads him, for instance, into the habit of buying tinned goods instead of growing wholesome fresh food on his croft. And so the dole, the feeling that it is unprofitable to till the land, and the departure of more and more people to seek a living elsewhere, are causing heather, bracken and peat-bog to gain the upper hand. The grants given to cut bracken are of little avail if there are no sheep and particularly cattle to ensure that it is kept down. It is the lack of proper stocking that encourages the bracken. Much land that would previously carry a large head of stock has now deteriorated and, being under-stocked, is becoming worse. Not only, then, are the people losing heart, but the land is losing heart too.

To complete this tale of distress and decline, mention must be made of the fishing industry, which is the mainstay of many islanders and partly supports a large number of crofters along the coasts. There are rich herring grounds round the Western Highlands and Isles, but for lack of local capital and therefore of competitive fishing-equipment the native population have for centuries been accustomed to see this source of potential wealth exploited by



Robert M. Adam

Although fertile soil exists between the Highland hills and lochs, only modern methods of farming and transport can make it repay labour with a livelihood. Examples of well-cultivated and accessible crofts on the Sutherland coast (above) and at the head of Loch Fyne, Argyllshire (below)

Robert M. Adam





Robert M. Adam

Robert M. Adam



The upland grazing is a great potential source of wealth to Highland crofters; only, however, if there is enough stock to keep the bracken down. Bracken in Glen Garry

Peat is another valuable Highland product—an inexhaustible mine of fuel; but the peat-bog also can become a spreading menace if the land is left undrained and unused

English and foreign fishermen. Through the 'progressive' methods of fishing practised by modern steam-trawlers, frequently owned by English companies, the inshore spawning-grounds are being spoiled and the saithe and lythe that were formerly plentiful in the shallow waters are vanishing. Where crofters on the coasts could once supplement their livelihood by fishing from small boats, there is little left for them to catch now. A special menace is the ring-net system of fishing employed by some of the large trawlers. Those that use it do not have to keep outside the three-mile limit, as the seine-net fishers are supposed to do, but come into the lochs and bays.

Such are the Highlands today: a land where men decay without even the doubtful compensation of accumulating wealth. Yet this land has contributed some of the most precious elements in our national heritage; it has given birth to many of the makers of Scottish and British history, to soldiers whose heroic valour has won them a unique place in the traditions of the British Army; and from it has gone forth a stream of colonists who have made the Highland name an honoured one in every part of the Empire. We have only to look at the Dominions (especially Canada) to see how the Highland stock has thriven in conditions that give a fair chance for the development of its splendid qualities. Apart from all sentiment, apart from the romance of Highland scenery, Highland charm and Highland history, it does seem worth while making an effort to preserve the reservoir of such a people.

But drastic and immediate action is needed if the Highland race is to be enabled to survive. Many suggestions have been made, bearing on many aspects of the problem. Perhaps a recital of the more important of these may be of value in focusing attention on what has been, and can be done.

In the first place, without better communications no advance is possible; no headway can be made against isolation

or high freight charges. In respect of roads, at least, there is every prospect of a material improvement in the immediate future; for the Government has adopted a road programme involving the expenditure of £6,000,000 in the seven counties over a period of five years, without any increase in local burdens. As regards communications along the coast and with the islands, it should not be forgotten that the MacBrayne Company is already subsidized by the State to the extent of about £50,000 a year, and that the contract controlling the subsidy provides for reduced freights, limited dividends, Government representation on the board of directors, and better, bigger and faster boats. Thus the way has been laid down for any further State aid that may be needed to assist growing traffic; and if pier and harbour facilities could also be improved, a long step would have been taken in the direction of remedying a transport situation which at present is far from satisfactory.

Secondly, there is the land itself, in which the Highlander, if he is to maintain the best characteristics of his ancestors, must find his true salvation. Can the drift to the south and to the cities be stopped? Can the crofts furnish a good enough living to the crofter and his family to keep more of the young people at home, to sustain an expanding instead of a contracting agricultural economy, to encourage an increase instead of a decrease in the amount of land under cultivation? Some very interesting and significant answers were given to this question by the Member for Orkney and Shetland in the House of Commons in December 1936. He showed that in Orkney, between 1870 and 1935, the acreage under arable cultivation had increased by 30 per cent; the head of cattle from 22,000 to 40,000 and the sheep stock from 25,000 to 70,000. The increase in arable acreage had not come from the conversion of permanent grass, but from the breaking up of rough hill-pasture. What was regarded two generations ago as barren and



Violet Banks

Jocelyn Gibb

The sheep-grazing possibilities of the Islands do not compare with those of the Highlands; yet the Harris tweed industry makes it worth while for the people of the Outer Hebrides—

—to maintain their flocks with care, paying special attention to regular dipping (above); and even to transport sheep for the winter to rocky islets where landing may be difficult but grazing is good (right)

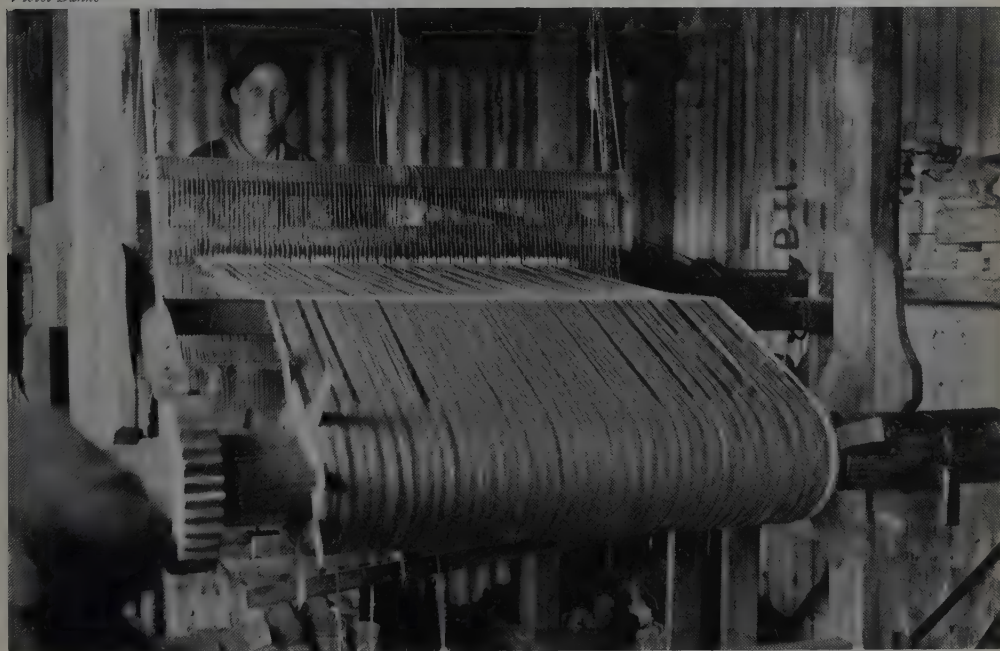




Violet Banks

The fostering of native products like Harris tweed puts money into Highland pockets. (Above) Dyeing wool with crotal (made from lichens found on the Islands) over a peat fire, the smoke of which gives the tweed its pleasant smell. (Below) A woman of Harris at her loom

Violet Banks





J. Dixon-Scott

The fishing industry does not contribute what it should to Highland welfare. Protection and new gear are needed to revive fishing-ports like Helmsdale in Sutherland

useless land is now producing astonishing quantities of beef, mutton, milk and eggs—the fowl population of Orkney is nearly 500,000 and the export of eggs is over 3,000,000 dozen a year.

This extraordinary transformation in Orkney was attributed by Major Neven-Spence to various factors, some of which seem to apply to the Highland crofts as a whole. In the forefront he put occupying ownership: most of the farms in Orkney are occupied and worked by families, 66 per cent of the land being owned by the occupier. Stimulated not only by pride of ownership, but also by a wise policy of agricultural instruction, these hard-working people have taken full advantage of the assistance offered to them by the Department of Agriculture in improving the quality of their stock and of their grazing-land.

Another point to which Major Neven-

Spence drew attention was that, though the holdings in Orkney might with advantage be larger, their average size approximated to the minimum of 30 acres which he regarded as essential. He expressed the opinion that 'in all the land policy we have followed in the Highlands and Islands in the past, the greatest mistake has been in making the holdings far too small'—a view which was echoed by Mr Compton Mackenzie at a conference on business enterprise held in Edinburgh last November.

On that occasion Mr Mackenzie reminded his hearers that the western coasts of the Highlands enjoyed a very remarkable climate—so mild that they can seriously compete even with Cornwall in earliness of season for flowers; but that before market gardeners could avail themselves of this climatic advantage the problems of transport and marketing

would have to be solved. Some form of co-operative marketing scheme, whereby greater use could be made of the sea-transport to which the Highlands are so naturally adapted, and its cost could be lowered, is indeed a crying need; and the provision of marketing facilities instead of mere monetary relief was the theme of a letter addressed to *The Times* by the Duke of Montrose, who advocated State aid in the establishment of depots, with Government organizers, for the marketing of eggs, wool, honey and other products, including those of handicrafts.

In these, the native hand-industries of the Highlands, lies perhaps the third most important opportunity of bringing their ancient traditional life up to the productive level of the modern world. In a recent Trade Supplement of *The Times*, Mr E. S. Harrison described the admirable pioneer and educational work which has been per-

formed in this connection by the Highland Home Industries Association, which sells such handicraft products as wool, knitting and hand-woven cloth, through its depots in Edinburgh, Glasgow, London and other cities. In 1936 the Highland Home Industries distributed over £15,000 in wages to nearly 1000 part-time workers, who fish and work their crofts as well. Mr Harrison also referred to the valuable stimulus which has been given to employment in the Outer Hebrides by the Harris Tweed Association, which administers the Harris trade-mark granted by the Board of Trade in 1934, and distributes about £100,000 a year to a trade that now employs some 500 automatic hand-loomes besides the true hand-loomes.

A fourth, and indispensable measure, especially from the standpoint of the Islands, is the protection of the sea-fishing industry. Whether or not, for this purpose,



The Times

Forestry could also make a greater contribution, though the Forestry Commission has increased its holdings sixty-fold since 1920

a more rigorous enforcement of existing legislation would suffice; whether the limit within which trawling is forbidden should be extended, perhaps by international agreement; whether certain areas within the firths and islands should be closed altogether to fishermen from elsewhere; these are matters which have been frequently debated in the House of Commons and which, in the final analysis, only experts can decide. What is certain is that even if the Highland fisheries were adequately protected, the local fishermen will be unable to take full advantage of their opportunities unless they are provided with sufficient capital to purchase new boats and up-to-date gear.

Afforestation presents a fifth line of advance towards greater prosperity in the Highlands; not only because forestry can support an increased population on relatively poor soils—it has been calculated that while 1000 acres under sheep will employ only one or two shepherds, a like area under forest requires the services of ten men—but also because it affords hope for the eventual establishment of a great timber trade, for which the Highlands may claim to be at least as well suited as Norway or Sweden, with all the subsidiary opportunities of employment that this would involve. In recent years the Forestry Commission have added enormously to their holdings in the Highlands (327,886 acres in the seven above-mentioned counties in 1937, as against 5500 acres in 1920), but there is still room for a vast increase.

The Forestry Commission, by granting access to such splendid stretches of scenery as are included in the Argyll National Forest Park, which was made available to the public in 1936, has played its part in encouraging progress in a sixth important direction. The tourist industry, if properly exploited in conjunction with improved communications, could bring a great deal of wealth to the Highlands and could ensure a good market for local pro-

duce. Publicity, of course, is necessary, especially with the object of lengthening the tourist season, now all too short, and exploding the myth about 'too much rain'. There is no doubt that more could be made of the sporting facilities, particularly as regards fishing. There are many lochs which are seldom fished and which would provide admirable sport for the holiday-maker if they could be made accessible to him.

In considering the tourist question we must not forget that the attraction of the Highlands lies to a great extent in the unspoilt character of the country and in its grand, still beauty. It would be easy enough to break that spell with ill-judged development, and herein lies the source of much opposition among Highlanders and others to the extension of hydro-electric power plants for industrial purposes. One of the Government-supported projects for the Highlands is the Caledonian Power Scheme. With the aid of a large Government grant a company proposes to harness water-power for the manufacture of calcium carbide. The area affected includes some of the finest scenery in the Highlands, involving the fresh-water Lochs Quoich, Garry and Cluanie, the sea-loch Hourn and Glen Moriston and Glen Loyne. The supporters of the scheme say that the scenery will not be altered very much and that anyhow work will be given to local people.

That the scenery *will*, however, be permanently affected is evident from the fact that, quite apart from the concrete dams, factory buildings and so forth, the working of the completed plant will require the vertical level of lochs with gradually sloping banks to be periodically raised and lowered some 20 to 30 feet. As to the provision of work, existing hydro-electric plants do not afford much ground for the expectation that the amount of employment given locally will be very great, once the actual construction is completed; and even if a large demand for labour were



Robert M. Adam

The extension of hydro-electric power plants would certainly involve capital expenditure in the Highlands; but many Highlanders consider that it is the wrong kind, and oppose such developments as the Caledonian Power Scheme, which would affect the scenery of Lochs Hourn (above) and Garry (below)

Robert M. Adam







created by this and other industrial developments based on the unused water-power of the Highlands, it is very doubtful whether the ultimate effect would be beneficial, since the demand could only be fulfilled by the withdrawal of more people from the land, or the introduction into the Highlands of an alien element and alien standards inimical to the rebuilding of Highland life on its native foundations.

To sum up, there is no doubt that effective action could be taken in several directions in order to stop the drift of population away from the Highlands. Better communications; a 'new deal' for the crofter, inspired by a more lively understanding of his problems and a greater appreciation of his intrinsic worth; the encouragement of native hand-industries and the provision of facilities for the marketing of their products on a larger scale; the protection and expansion of the fisheries; afforestation on a much larger scale as the first step towards the establishment of a great timber trade; the fostering of the tourist industry. But all these measures need to be taken together, in so striking a manner as to convince the Highland people that real help will be forthcoming if they

will help themselves. As *The Times* has said in a leading article, 'it does not appear that any comprehensive plan exists for dealing with the area as a whole and for preventing the assistance given from being piecemeal and only temporarily effective'. Perhaps the Highlands Sub-Committee of the Scottish Development Council, whose report on their investigations into the whole problem is shortly expected, will produce such a far-reaching, co-ordinated plan. If they do, and if the Government takes the vigorous and drastic action that is needed, the drift to the South may be stopped. Then, not all at once, but perhaps in one, perhaps in two generations, the glens will start to fill again and the feeling of despair will have gone.

What the people need is hope; hope that the future holds something for them. But they are a proud race and not easy to help in their trouble. Whatever is done, we must not forget that the existence of human beings is under consideration and that no amount of 'plans' and theories can bring prosperity in a matter of two or three years. Meantime let us hope the remedies may not be applied too late, leaving posterity to witness the results of our tragic lack of foresight.

The Scot and the Empire

by A. G. MACDONELL

There was once, as an old map in the Editor's possession testifies, an 'English Empire in America'. There is now a British Empire which is in process of evolving into a Commonwealth of Nations. In that evolution away from what a recent writer has called 'our earlier possessive and domineering view of empire', we English have been assisted not only by hard experience but also by intimate contact with nationalisms more vigorous and romantic than our own. Mr Macdonell tells us what England's imperial idea has done to Scotland: perhaps one day an Englishman will tell us what Scotland's national idea has done for England

IN the matter of empire-building, it is not easy to decide whether the world-conquering English have been luckier to have the Scots to help them, or the Scots luckier to have the English giant to assist. But what is certain is that each has been the complement of the other, and for a paradoxical reason.

The interlocking of the two races in the one imperial enterprise springs from a paradox that is almost grotesque. In the 12th and 13th centuries A.D. Scotland was a happy, self-contained country, at peace with the world except for a few marauders from Scandinavia, and mellowing in the sun of intelligent and artistic kings. Then in 1292 the strong and crooked Frenchman, Edward Plantagenet, brought death and destruction to Scotland, as he had already brought them to Wales, and as his predecessor, Henry the Angevin, had sent them with Strongbow to Ireland. The war swayed backwards and forwards across the Lowlands. Sometimes one side won, sometimes the other. But always the land suffered.

And so, at last, Scotsmen began to look elsewhere for their fortunes than to the smoking crofts and gutted mansions of the Lowlands where an English army had passed. And even in the victorious days, there was no life to be built up on the smoking farms and gutted manors of Northumberland where a Scottish army had invaded and retreated.

So England forced Scotland to look abroad.

That is how the Scot became a cosmo-

politan beyond all other citizens of the world. It was not the French Alliance which sent him across the narrow seas. It was the helplessness of life in Scotland, thanks to the English wars. The French Alliance—and that again was due to the English wars—was only a beginning. The habit quickly grew, and in the 17th century there were at least ten thousand Scotsmen fighting either in the armies of Gustavus Adolphus or in the side-shows of the Thirty Years' War. So that by the end of the 17th century there was already a two-hundred-year-old tradition of Scottish soldiers abroad.

There are few records of what this meant to those who stayed behind in Scotland. But without any records at all it does not take a genius to imagine the return of an occasional battered warrior with wounds and wonderful tales, the intermittent stream of foreign money, or the mothers praying for their sons, long gone away, long unheard of, but never forgotten.

This fever to travel abroad had been in the veins of Scotland for generations while England was only striving to retain a shadowy sovereignty over Anjou, or not to be driven out of Calais, or not to be drawn into wars with Spain. The English were stay-at-homes long after the Scots were treading the roads of Europe. The faster the English developed their wonderful instinct for fighting at sea, the closer they drew their mantle of isolation around them. And so the more intensely had the Scots to force their way through the English naval cordon into the outer world.

The one nation was cutting itself off from the outer world by the creation of a navy which was going, ultimately, to hand it a good deal of the world on a platter. The other nation was ignoring that navy, and was fighting its way into the outer world by its own exertions, without ships, and in the end it found itself fully qualified to colonize and administer the vast slabs of the earth which the other nation's navy had secured.

The one, by its power and ships and money, provided the opportunity. The other provided many men. It was as if the English had trained a colonial civil service by mistake. As if they had tried to kick a man in the pants and had inadvertently kicked him into the governorship of Southern Nigeria.

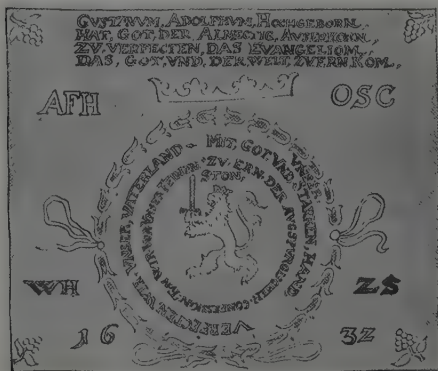
So the brutality of England's French king was the original and prime cause why France's 'Ancient Ally' ultimately helped England to seize France's overseas empire and a great deal more besides. And if that is not a paradox, then I never met one.

It is significant that the Scots made one attempt to found an empire without the assistance of the English. The Darien

Scheme was to be Edinburgh's' reply to London's East India Company. This was the plan of William Paterson, set in motion in 1695, to found a settlement on the Isthmus of Darien, which we now call Panama, for the control of commerce between Europe and the Far East. It was, of course, a disaster. Not only was it not supported by the Line of Battle of the English Fleet; not only was it a rash attempt to compete with a great financial corporation in the city of London; but it was, rashest of all, an attempt to compete with the English in empire-building. The English have never tolerated competition in this, their own private sphere, and they duly destroyed the Darien Scheme. It was the Scots' only attempt at independent colonization. They have this to their credit, that they realized the magnitude of their fiasco, and, even more, the stupidity of the idea. And never again did they do such a foolish thing.

The turning point in the story was when that typically English genius, the Earl of Chatham, had his typically English flash of poetry and created the Highland regiments of the English army. The kilt was proscribed after 1746, and the carrying of weapons had been forbidden to the clans. But when Chatham raised the Highland regiments he gave back at one stroke the two treasured privileges of the north-west of Scotland. And the simple mountaineers were so enthusiastic in their rush to resume the tartan and the dirk that they did not stop to notice that they were enlisting on the wrong side.

Thus, when General Wolfe, who was born in an English vicarage, led his Highlanders to the victory at Quebec, not one of those Highlanders remembered that only thirteen years before, their beloved commander had been one of the officers of Butcher Cumberland in the devastation of the glens. Sentiment went by the board as the new El Dorados were opened up, and the long tradition of foreign adventure came into its own when the English battle-



Royal Military Record Office, Stockholm

Carried by a Scottish unit enlisted under Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden during the Thirty Years' War: a banner of Colonel John Forbes' regiment



Shokloster, Sweden
One of the many Scots who, before the union with England, took service abroad:
Colonel David Drummond, a supporter of Gustavus Adolphus

ships created the empire idea. Where before the Scots had been limited to a rough quadrilateral of which the four corners were Edinburgh, Gibraltar, Constantinople and Moscow, in the last half of the 18th century they suddenly found that the only limit to their adventures was the Stream of Ocean itself.

But now there was a difference in Scottish wandering. Formerly the wanderers had been almost entirely soldiers of fortune, professional men of arms. The only big commercial enterprise which had emanated from Scotland had ended in calamity at Darien.

The English imperial idea opened a new profession as well as new continents and far-distant seas. Not only could the military Scot still follow his hereditary bent, but the commercial Scot could now take his trade abroad. The Hudson's Bay

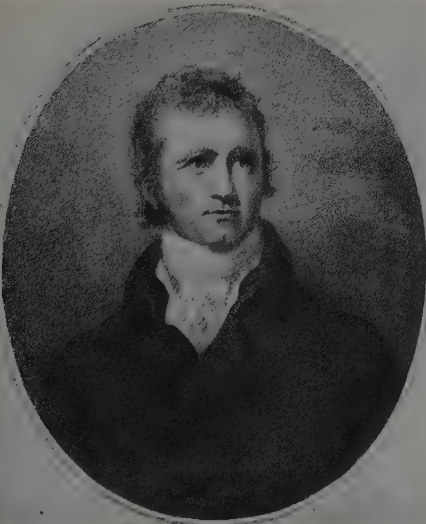
Company showed that the Heights of Abraham were not the only heights in Canada to be scaled, and the East India Company was beckoning to needy Scotsmen who saw no reason why they, too, should not become nabobs.

The first powerful corporate expression of this new combination of Scottish adventure and commerce was the North-West Company of Montreal. There was at this time a large and increasing number of Scotsmen in Canada, and especially in the neighbourhood of Montreal, and they kept their eyes eagerly fixed upon the trade in furs of the Hudson's Bay Company. More daring, more desperate, and, from generations of poverty and hardship in the Highlands, tougher than the English settlers, these exiled Highlanders reached out with extraordinary boldness across the west and north-west of Canada to grasp the lands which the Hudson's Bay directors had lacked the enterprise to penetrate.

The greatest of these 'Master Pedlars' was Alexander Mackenzie from Stornoway, the man who mapped the Mackenzie River from the Great Slave Lake to the Arctic Ocean, travelling 3000 miles by canoe in 102 days. But there were many others almost as great, and the place-names of Canada, and the list of employees of the North-West Company, might almost be a roll of clansmen of 1745. These men brought into their trade and their exploring the same violent ruthlessness with which their ancestors had conducted their clan feuds. And it is not surprising that they were too strong for the idealistic, scholarly, and sensitive Thomas Douglas, the fifth Earl of Selkirk, who tried to found an agricultural colony on the Red River in 1812. Selkirk had been granted a hundred and twenty thousand square miles in Manitoba and Minnesota by the Hudson's Bay Company and he sent his lieutenant, Miles Macdonell, to set up the first buildings of the new colony. But the North-West Company fought the idealist to a standstill in every law court in Canada,



'An Officer and Serjeant of a Highland Regiment' raised by William Pitt in 1757, wearing the kilts and weapons proscribed after the '45



Rischgitz Studios

Sir Alexander Mackenzie, first to descend the Mackenzie River to the Arctic Ocean (1789) and to cross the American continent north of Mexico (1793)

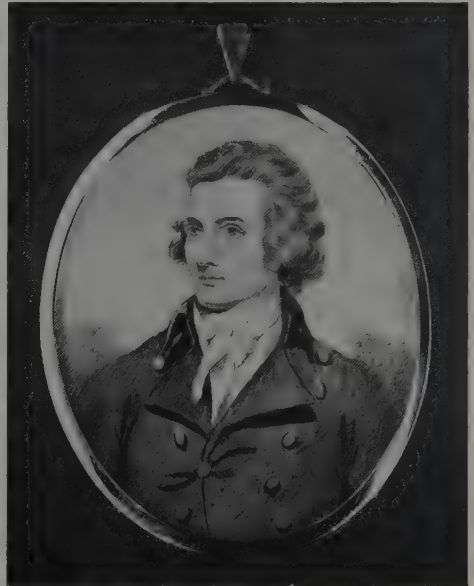
and Selkirk, after losing a hundred thousand pounds, died of disappointment and a broken heart in 1820.

When the North-West Company amalgamated, after a terrific contest, with the Hudson's Bay Company in 1821 in the practical control of Canadian trade, it was another Highlander, George Simpson from Loch Broom, who became the greatest of all the rulers of the company since the days when Prince Rupert was the first governor.

Whereas Scotland's contribution to the creation of modern Canada was a fierce and ruthless indomitability, her main contribution to Africa was a great humanitarian. Although Mungo Park, the Selkirkshire man, will always rank among the immortals of exploration, it was David Livingstone who brought the highest nobility of mind to the task of opening up the dark places of Africa. Park ventured to trace the course of the Niger river. Livingstone adventured to bring help to

the oppressed and benighted. Professor Dewar Gibb has written of Livingstone: "Separated for years from children and friends; carrying out invaluable exploration while so ill that a man of his age at home must inevitably have been laid aside; facing every kind of danger and knowing that rest and heaped-up honours awaited him at home—Livingstone had decided, despite all this, that it was his duty to finish his work in Africa. Readers of his *Journal* will realize that he had for long been possessed by an almost mystic sense of a task undertaken by him for the redemption of Africa."

If there was some queer notion in Livingstone's head that he had a sacred duty to discover the sources of the Nile, there was a much stronger impulse in him which drove him on to the liberation of the slaves and to the help of downtrodden men. There is an infinity of difference between such men as Alexander Mackenzie



National Portrait Gallery

Mungo Park, engaged by the African Association to explore the Niger, which he reached in 1796 and in which he was drowned in 1806



Rischgits Studios

Whether the motives of the missionary or the explorer chiefly animated David Livingstone during his later years, it was his determination to discover the sources of the Nile that made him refuse to return to England with H. M. Stanley when the latter found him at Ujiji in 1871

and George Simpson who made modern Canada for profit, and Livingstone who thought only of humanity and scientific knowledge. All three were Highlanders, and all three had the common qualities of intensity of purpose, inflexibility of will, and boundless heroism. But there the resemblance stops.

It is a curious thing that the commercial side of Scotland's genius should so signally have failed to appreciate South Africa's possibilities until it was too late. Livingstone put Africa, so to speak, on the map. But it was a Jewish acrobat from Houndsditch and the son of an English parson who seized the country's wealth and used the British army to make the country fit for magnates to live in.

The Highlanders who fought and died at Magersfontein and Spion Kop were unconsciously overthrowing every idea for which Livingstone had lived, and it re-

quired the far-sightedness and wisdom of another Highlander, a Campbell of Strathro who added Bannerman to his name, to undo a little of the work of Magersfontein and Spion Kop and infuse some generosity and kindness into the relations between Britain and South Africa.

But it was Rhodes and Barney Barnato who laid the foundations of that pitiless financial and industrial tyranny which has overshadowed modern South Africa.

It is unlucky for the fame of other Scots in Africa that Livingstone should so dominate the scene. In East Africa Thompson and Keith Johnston, Stewart, Kirk and Mackay; Mackenzie in Bechuanaland and Stellaland; Mary Slessor, the amazing Dundee mill-hand, in West Africa, and many other Scots did important work which has been overshadowed in popular repute. The only

Scot whose name is as well known as Livingstone's enjoys, so to speak, a good deal of his celebrity from the central part he played in a tragedy which was outside his own control. Charles George Gordon would always have been a fascinating study for the psychologist and biographer, with his astonishing assortment of talents and qualities, but he only entered the popular Valhalla when the Mahdi stormed Khartoum and sent his head, as a grim souvenir, to the captive Slatin Pasha.

Ironically, the third most celebrated Scot in the story of Africa is also remembered for his part in a failure which was only not a tragedy because it was tinged with farce. But for a foolish gallop in the direction of Johannesburg, Leander Starr Jameson would have had his place in the textbooks as a useful subordinate to the dominating Rhodes. But perhaps there is a sort of justice in the reward which his blunder brought to Jameson. For the restless, visionary, generous doctor from Edinburgh played a great part in the pacification of the Matabele and the Mashona and in the creation of what we now know as Rhodesia.

Scotland's record in India is so shot through with personalities that a short description of it must inevitably become a catalogue of names. So perhaps it would be better to consider it from a broader angle.

On the whole Scotland comes well out of its Indian connection. The soldiers, as always, performed wonderful feats of valour in the wars and in the Mutiny, and some of the best military commanders, Outram, Colin Campbell, Napier and, above all, Hugh Rose, were Scotsmen.

In doing business with the natives, the Scotsman was no more and no less rapacious than the Englishman. Vast fortunes were made by varying methods. The ways in which Warren Hastings filled the avaricious maw of his court of directors at East India House were neither

better nor worse than the poker game at which a king of Burma lost a teak forest to a party of enterprising Scots.

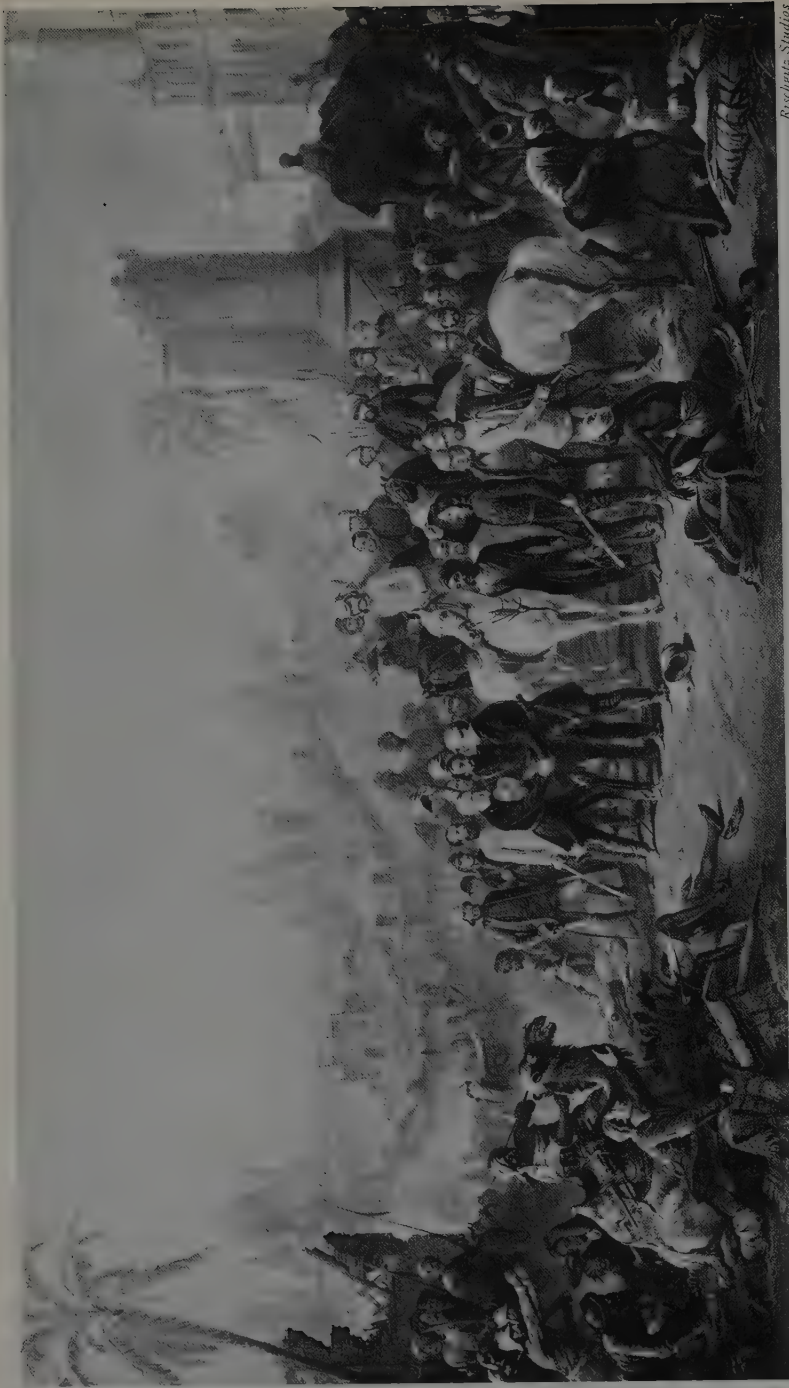
Jute made a good deal of money for Calcutta, but it also made a great deal of money for Dundee. The shipping firms became wealthy on the freights of the East India trade, but the ships were mostly built on the Clyde.

So in two of the three relationships, the military and the economic, between the Scots and the natives of India, as in the relationships between the English and the natives, the material advantage rested with the Britons. They swept away the Sikhs at Sobraon and Moodkee; they stormed the Lahore Gate of Delhi; English and Scots together rescued, in that wild, bag-



Rischgitz Studios

Since their incorporation in the British Army, Highland regiments have played a notable part in all its major campaigns, including the South African War



Rescued Studios

Scots and English shared the honours of the Indian Mutiny. During the operations preceding the first relief of Lucknow, the half-Scottish General Outram deliberately waived his rank in favour of the English General Havelock, so that the glory of the achievement might be his; and the two made a sortie from the beleaguered Residency to greet the Scottish commander-in-chief, General Campbell, on November 17, 1857

pipe-inspired rush, the Residency at Lucknow. The natives, even Tantia Topee, could not marshal a battle line which would stand, at the odds of 25 to 1, against the British infantry, whether trousered or kilted. And, in business, Throgmorton Street and Lombard Street ruled the immensely wealthy Indian roost.

But there still remains the third aspect, the governing of India. The great, and separate, genius of both races—the Anglo-Saxon and the Caledonian—have shone at their best in the administration of a land which contains more than 200 languages and more millions of folk than there are in Europe. But, while every credit must be given to the part played in the Indian Civil Service by the English, it would not be unfair, I think, to say that in proportion to their numbers the Scots have played an even greater part. Dalhousie, of course, is the supreme example in historical estimation of the Scot in India, but Munro and Elphinstone were almost as great in their own spheres. Especially great were they in their simple, unbiased treatment of the Indians, which was such a contrast to the attitude of a good many of their colleagues and predecessors in the service of 'John' Company.

Another wise and moderate administrator was the Earl of Minto, the first Scottish Governor-General, but James Andrew Ramsay, tenth Earl and first Marquess of Dalhousie, was the king of them all. A combination of soldier, ruler, reformer, builder of vast public works, planner of railways, champion of enlightenment and education, Dalhousie did more for India than any other man, and it was a cruel stroke of ill-luck that he had left India and been succeeded by Canning only a year before the Mutiny broke out. As for the accusation that Dalhousie's annexation of Oudh was a contributory cause of the Mutiny, it must be carefully kept in mind that the annexation was forced upon him by his court of directors in London, and that he strongly disapproved of it.

Of the host of lesser figures who helped to swell the profits of East India House, to create the imperial crown, and to govern the Indians sanely and wisely, it is impossible to speak in a short article. Three of the most picturesque, perhaps, were Rollo Gillespie, Fighting Hector Macdonald, and Piper Findlater, V.C., of Dargai fame.

But there were so many of them that, as Professor Dewar Gibb has pointed out, "it has even proved possible for a clansman to write a separate record of Clan Campbell in the Honourable East India Company".

* * *

John MacArthur, George III, and a couple of Spanish merino sheep came together and founded modern Australia. For the first borrowed the third from the second and began the Australian wool industry.

The influence of that industry upon Scotland, and vice versa, is a strange and, in one way, tragic one. For when the Anglo-Hanoverian conquerors broke up the clan system after 1746, and converted the patriarchal chiefs into real-estate owners, with legal documents instead of sentimental ties, they opened up wonderful financial possibilities for the up-to-date owners of the glens and straths. The ex-chiefs saw, on the one side, the rising young textile industry in Yorkshire and, on the other, the land which now belonged to them and which might be far more profitably dwelt upon by sheep than by ex-clansmen. So they evicted the clansmen and brought in the sheep, and a great many of the ruined clansmen went to Australia, followed in the footsteps of John MacArthur, raised Spanish merino sheep, and soon ruined their sheep-raising ex-chiefs. As Bradford expanded, so did the mass-production of Australia; the small wool industry of the Highlands could not compete and went to the wall.

Macquarie, fifth Governor of New South Wales, Thomas Brisbane, who succeeded Macquarie, David Syme, and

Allan Cunningham, are four among the Scotsmen who did so much for Australia, but not one can compare in height of achievement with MacArthur and his merino sheep.

* * *

Last in this brief survey comes New Zealand.

The 'hungry forties' were certainly as hungry in Scotland as in England—perhaps, indeed, they were worse—and the misery, poverty and starvation in the new industrial areas and the continued evictions in the glens provided a double incentive for emigration. There was strong tradition for a flow of emigrants to Newfoundland and Canada, and to a lesser extent to Australia. But it was not until 1842 that George Rennie turned men's heads towards the idea of establishing a religious-agricultural colony, on strict Presbyterian lines, in New Zealand. In 1848 the idea came to its full blossoming with the landing of two shiploads of Scotsmen at Otago Bay, and the first flower of the blossoming was the town of Dunedin.

The naming of the streets of Dunedin is a counterpart of the pipe-lament *Lochaber No More*. Those settlers were ten thousand miles from Scotland, and never would they revisit old, long-loved scenes. So they called their main street Princes Street, and they built a Moray Place, and a Canongate, and a St Andrew's Street, and a George Street, and a Hanover Street and a York Place.

The prime force in the settlement of the land question in New Zealand—and that is the same thing as saying the whole body politic of New Zealand—was John Mackenzie, a young crofter from Ross-shire, who landed at Otago in 1860 and became Minister of Lands in 1891. To quote Professor Gibb once again: "MacKenzie gave the whole agricultural economy of New Zealand a new orientation. His reputation was enormous, and he was idolized by the farmers whom he had helped. Drawing inspiration as he did

from a great social injustice, personally endured, Mackenzie was one of the few men, if not the only man, with the passionate force needed in the fight against powerful monopoly."

* * *

This is a bare outline of what Scotland has done for the Empire. The Highland contribution has been vision and violence, courage and toughness. The Lowlander contributed his laborious toil, and his passion for education, and his integrity. And both have brought a deep understanding of the sufferings of the poor and the oppressed.

And what does it all mean to Scotland? How does this association with the greatest imperial power since Rome affect those who are left behind in the crofts and manse, in the upland hamlets and the grey cities? What has a sudden opening of the world, behind the hulls of England's battle fleet, done to a small, poor and proud race that had for so long looked upon Paris and Stockholm and Danzig as the lodestars for young men with a strong sword-arm?

The answer is that the partnership with England—even though it has been necessarily only a junior partnership—has completed what the Plantagenet wars began, the forging of Scotland into the most cosmopolitan country in the world. If you walked from house to house throughout the land, and had the nerve to inquire everywhere what the master of the house had been doing before he settled down in that particular spot, I am absolutely certain that you would be staggered by the multitude of distinguished world-citizens that you would find. In one village you would discover a retired Chief Justice of Ceylon; in another an ex-Governor of Sierra Leone. Here would be the greatest living authority on Himalayan dialects, and there would be the man who drew up the Constitution of the New Hebrides. Cheeks by jowls would be the late Bishop of the Arctic and the senior partner in the greatest shipping



National Portrait Gallery

James Ramsay, tenth Earl and first Marquess of Dalhousie, Governor-General of India 1848-56

firm in the East and a former Lord Chancellor of England and an engineer from the Indus barrage.

And when you come to think of it, it must be so. For if you take a small and poor race, driven into a stubborn patriotism and pride by external aggression, forced into a corner from which it can only get out by hard work and self-education, and resolute to carve its way in the world, it cannot fail to make its mark. It will not have time to write poetry. It will almost certainly forget that it has a soul. But it will succeed in the material things of this life.

The letters from every part of the globe, the stories of returned heroes, the postage stamps on the envelopes, the remittances in strange currencies, all create an atmosphere that there is more in life than the twelve miles round and about Aberdeen, or the Long Town of Kirkcaldy, or the shadow of the lonely eagle against the mountains of Skye. Uncles and brothers are adventuring in the Seven Seas. So why should not nephews and benjamins leave the dreary round and go out in search of romance and fortune? You will find it all in Neil Munro's short story, the greatest of all short stories about the Highlands, which is called *The Lost Pibroch*.

"I have a notion," said Paruig Dall, the blind piper, "I did not tell you that the Lost Pibroch is the pibroch of good-byes. It is the tune of broken clans, that sets the men on the foray and makes cold hearth-stones. It is the tune that puts men on the open road, that makes restless lads and dreaming women."

And that is what England's imperial idea has done to Scotland. It has put the men upon the open road. It has turned the eyes of a small community living on the far north-western extremity of Europe, with the seas on three sides, towards the magic islands of Lodore and the cities of Atlantis. The children of the manse and the paupers of the slums have risen to the government of millions, to an almost universal belief that what has been done fifty times can surely be done a hundred times.

So Scotland's share in the Empire increasingly whets the keenness of Scotland to play its part in the Empire. Each pro-consul inspires a dozen relations to aim at a pro-consulate, and each nabob, even on the reduced scale of the modern nabob when compared to the days of Sheridan's Oliver Surface with his 'bullion, rupees, pagodas, china, shawls, congo tea, avadavats, and Indian crackers', is at least an incentive to the Arbroath bank-clerk to try to become a Madras bank-clerk, as a stepping-stone to a partnership in Mac-kinnon, Mackenzie and Co. or the Governorship of Bengal.

Thus we come to the end of the story.

Scotland has been gradually and imperceptibly edged out of her European friendships into England's imperial service. England has gained brilliant allies; Scotland has gained a world-wide reputation; and a mighty Empire has been made.

And this year of 1938 sees the symbol of Scotland's share in the making of that Empire in the Exhibition at Bellahouston Park, Glasgow.

Gates of Adventure

I. Glasgow: Second City of the Empire

by The Right Hon. The VISCOUNT HORNE OF SLAMANNAN, G.B.E., K.C.

With the following article, specially written to coincide with the opening of the Empire Exhibition, Lord Horne introduces a series of articles to be published in forthcoming issues of The Geographical Magazine, dealing with the great ports through which the pioneers, the colonists, and the merchant venturers of our island race have sallied forth to the ends of the earth. Lord Horne's connections with Glasgow include a distinguished academic career at the University and nearly twenty years as Member of Parliament for the Hillhead Division of the city

THOSE of us who were present when His Majesty King George V in 1931 opened the dock at Glasgow which bears his name, will remember the discerning tribute which he paid to the character of the city.

That year was one of industrial depression on the Clyde; tonnage and goods in and out of the port were steadily diminishing; shipyards and the factories dependent on them were closing down and their thousands of workers were being laid idle without the glimmer of an assurance that they would ever resume work. People talked freely about the drift of Scottish trade southward, as though that were inevitable and the days of Glasgow as a great seaport and industrial centre were over.

In the course of his reply to the address of welcome the King said:

Two centuries ago Glasgow was the pioneer of the development of trade with North America. That enterprise, in the words of the best-known Glasgow citizen in literature, Bailie Nicol Jarvie, was the most fortunate event of her history 'since St Mungo first caught the herring in the Clyde'. Moreover, it was the first step which raised Scotland from a poor and backward country to a foremost place in all human activities.

It has given Glasgow today the proud position of the Second City in the Empire. She has been the window from which Scotland has looked out upon the world. She has been the port from which Scotsmen have gone forth to colonize and develop new lands. For a century her ships have sailed every ocean, and there are few

corners in the world, however remote, where you cannot find a Glasgow engineer.

It is a great record, but I am convinced that it is not yet ended. There are still new worlds for Glasgow to conquer. The future lies in the hands of the men with brains, energy and determination. These qualities the people of the Second City of my Empire have never lacked.

THE BID FOR THE SEA

Glasgow might well be called 'the invincible city', for its history is indeed a record of achievements due to the unconquerable will of its citizens. For many centuries it remained a little place on a comparatively insignificant river. As late as 1547 the town consisted of two groups of houses, clustered about the Mercat Cross on the one hand and the Cathedral on the other, linked together by a single street. In a half-hour one could easily have walked round it. Its atmosphere was peaceful and pedagogic and the clergy formed the centre upon which the subsistence of its inhabitants depended. During the upheaval of the Reformation a change came over the town. Thrown entirely upon their own resources, the burgesses resolved to transform Glasgow from an inland town into a seaport.

Glasgow was many miles from the sea and that meant trouble with the tides, shoals and sandbanks, even for the small boats which were then in use. But there were obstacles far more serious. Dum-barton and Renfrew, both royal burghs,

jealously guarded their trading privileges and barred the river route to Glasgow's vessels.

Glasgow was therefore bound to establish sea communications by overland routes. Its people traded with the East through Blackness near Linlithgow on the Firth of Forth, and with ports of the West through Irvine, a harbour on the Ayrshire coast. Goods were carried to and from Glasgow overland by pack-horse.

Its merchants had soon built up a considerable foreign trade. To Ireland they shipped coal; they traded with France and the Mediterranean countries in woollen cloth, coal, herring, for wines and fruits. With Scandinavia and the Baltic they traded in timber, hemp, flax and iron. But the cost of transport and the gradual silting up of Irvine brought about a crisis which the burgesses were successful in solving in 1662 when they at last obtained thirteen acres of land on the southern bank of the Clyde about two miles above

Greenock. Here they built Port Glasgow.

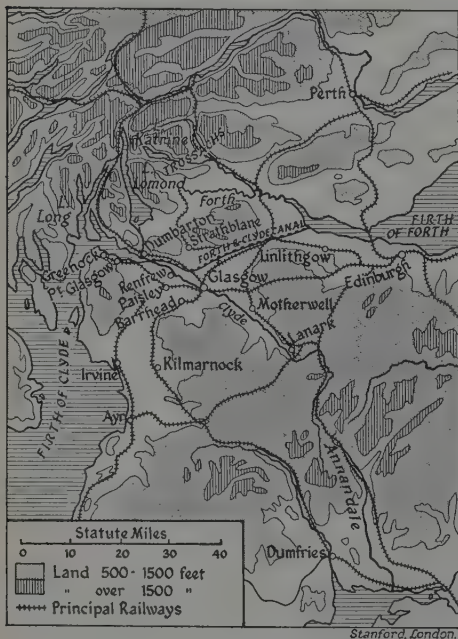
The next entanglement Glasgow had to face was political. Although Scotland and England owed allegiance to the same monarch their subjects were not protected or controlled by the same laws; the countries were quite separate as regards commerce. Scots merchants, for example, were excluded from trading with English colonies, then known as plantations, and as every other country with plantations made similar reservations in favour of its own nationals Glasgow fared badly, for Scotland had none of her own. An attempt was made to found a Scottish plantation on the Isthmus of Panama but it ended in disaster, with heavy losses in men and money for Glasgow.

TOBACCO LORDS

Then came the union of the English and Scottish Parliaments in 1707 and the great era of the city's prosperity began with the opening of the English colonies to Scottish merchants. Glasgow's two hundred years of conflict with privilege had ended.

For seventy years the citizens of Glasgow saw wealth come rolling up the Clyde in the shape of cargoes of tobacco from Virginia and Carolina. Great merchants—Glasgow's magnificoes—walked the streets and built imposing houses on the slopes of the hills. Virginia Street is named after Virginia House, which was built as a town house by Alexander Speirs, one of the wealthiest of the 'tobacco lords', as they were called. Glasford Street, Mitchell Street and the Mitchell Library are other names which recall them.

By 1772 Glasgow had captured more than half of the tobacco trade in Britain. Its merchants were importing 46,000,000 pounds of tobacco and re-exporting 44,000,000 pounds. In 1775 the tobacco imports rose to 57,000,000 pounds; and then came the crash. The English colonies in America revolted, repudiated their debts and ruined the merchants and the tobacco trade.





(Above) *The world's greatest shipbuilding river; the Clyde below Renfrew. The small steamer sailing down-stream is abreast of the yard where the new Cunarder Queen Elizabeth is building.*
 (Below) *The port of Glasgow: Queen's and Prince's Docks, which berth ships from Africa, Canada, U.S.A., Burma, China and Europe*

Aerofilms



BRINGING IN THE SEA

About the middle of the 18th century another serious problem arose. Glasgow's early difficulty had been to get boats down to the sea. Now the difficulty was that of bringing the sea up to Glasgow. Indeed it was an urgent necessity to do so, if the city was to continue to share the world's trade, as that trade was being done in bigger ships whose draught prevented them from entering and leaving the port without a great deal of trouble. In a sense the sea was again receding from Glasgow, which was threatened once more with isolation as an inland town.

To anyone who has stood in the vicinity of Prince's Dock and Queen's Dock and looked round on the array of immense cranes and derricks, capable of handling cargoes from the great ships berthed alongside the quays, the fact that in the 18th century a man could wade over the Clyde twelve miles below Glasgow is a constant source of astonishment, and the change that has since been wrought resembles a miracle.

The depth of the river, even where the present harbour is now situated, was then only fifteen inches at low tide and thirty-nine inches at high tide. In 1769 John Golborne of Chester was called in to deepen the river. His scheme was to confine the current to a narrow channel and use its power to scour out the bed. Walls and jetties were constructed along the banks, and a depth of six feet was soon attained in the shallows at the ford above Dumbarton. This depth was increased to fourteen feet at low water by 1781. Glasgow had succeeded in bringing the sea—and the world—to its doors.

THE RECKONING

The Clyde, however, remains a constant problem and unceasing vigilance and labour are required to prevent it from taking back the freedom which it has lost. For this reason a team of dredgers at work is a permanent feature of the Clyde scene. Those employed now are capable of

dredging to a depth of forty-eight feet below the water-line and every year they dig some two million cubic yards of matter out of the bed of the river. On their work Glasgow's very existence depends.

Few people realize the extent of the activities that are necessary to keep a great port like Glasgow open and abreast of the latest requirements of commerce. I venture therefore to give a short extract from the Annual Accounts of the Clyde Navigation Trust, consisting of some items from the capital expenditure on works, plant, etc., from 1810 to 1937.

	£	s.	d.
Construction of Tidal and Graving Docks and Quays . . .	5,232,689	8	11
Dredging—for Deepening and Widening . . .	1,485,021	18	10
Dredging Machines, Barges, etc. . . .	667,837	5	11
Sheds	834,742	18	7
Granary, Meadowside.	193,612	6	6
Cranes and other Harbour Appliances, including relative Power Installations . . .	719,714	17	2
River Dykes, Beacons and Lights	150,839	17	0
Workshops and Workmen's Houses	126,425	0	11
Cross Ferry-boats and Landing-places	193,608	16	7
Obtaining Acts of Parliament	99,146	8	5

Including other items, the total expenditure during the period was over £12,000,000.

ROAD, RAIL AND AIR

Having brought the sea to the door, Glasgow was in an exceptionally favourable position. Indeed it is not often fully realized how favourable that geographical position is. Admirably situated for trade with the New World, Glasgow is also well able to compete with other ports in trading with the Dominions and the Colonies, the Mediterranean, Africa and the East.

Further, although surrounded by hills—



Associated Scottish Newspapers

In 1768 the Clyde was a shallow, fordable stream. The enterprise of Glasgow citizens performed the miracle of transforming it into a river navigable to the city's heart by great ocean liners

on a clear day they can be seen from the streets—it has been well taken care of by Nature in the matter of inland communications, a circumstance which has helped to make it one of the world's greatest distributing centres. A glance at the accompanying map will show how the arrangement of the gaps in the hills has enabled the city's transport routes to branch out in all directions.

The valleys to the north open up the Highlands. The railways and roads passing through these gaps have, in conjunction with recent developments in transport, brought remote places within a few hours of the city. Two of the world's most romantic beauty spots, Loch Lomond and the Trossachs, are within an hour's journey either by the Vale of Leven or the

Blane Valley. Through the latter valley the pipes are laid which bring from Loch Katrine the abundant water supply essential to Glasgow's industries.

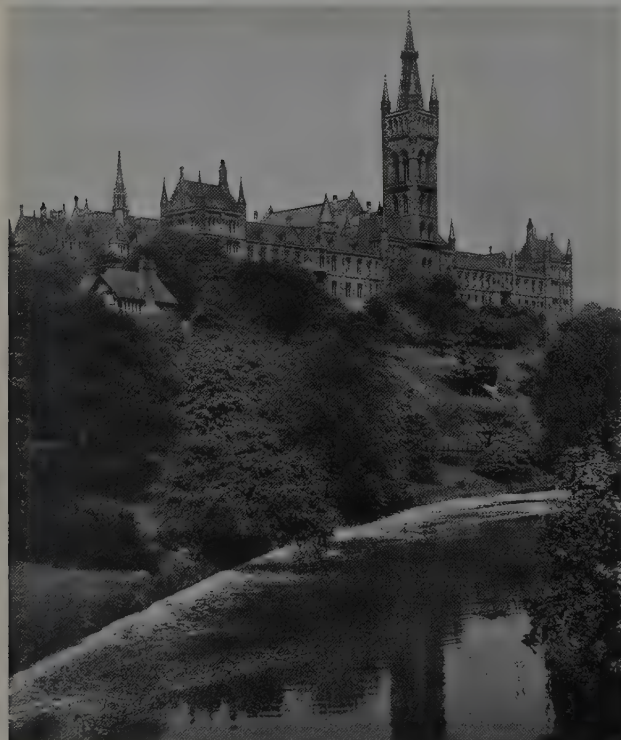
Commercially the gaps in the hills in other directions are far more important. That to the north-east provides a path to Glasgow's second seaboard. Through it the Forth and Clyde Canal was cut more than a century ago, and the level it follows would probably again be used in connection with any scheme for a central Scotland ship canal. The surface of the wide plain in which Glasgow is situated, once an agricultural area but now covered with hills of slag, lent itself to the construction of a grid of roads and railways to serve the coal-field over which the very foundations of the city are planted.



Associated Scottish Newspapers

Associated Scottish Newspapers

The Glasgow Art Gallery and Museum, built partly out of profits from exhibitions held in the neighbouring Kelvingrove Park, possesses rich collections of art treasures



The modern Glasgow University was erected in 1870 on the city's finest site, overlooking the River Kelvin; half the cost was publicly subscribed. It dates, however, from the Middle Ages and numbers among its famous sons Adam Smith and Lord Kelvin

Breaks in the hills to the west lead into the rich pastoral country of Ayrshire, from which Glasgow obtains agricultural products and the bulk of its milk supply. (Ayrshire, until quite recently, had more tubercle-free herds than all England and Wales together.) Lastly and most important of all, the Clyde Valley carves a path through the southern uplands and provides a short, easy way for road and rail into England through Annandale. Glasgow is thus linked up with the important industrial areas south of the Border, and is well placed to serve the needs of the five million people who live and work within a radius of eighty miles of the Royal Exchange. Indeed, with a great port, available raw materials of coal and iron and an excellent system of communications there is hardly a limit to the numbers for whom Glasgow could provide.

Scotland's chief airport is situated on the fringe of Glasgow at Renfrew, and is being used by most of the commercial air-services as their Scottish base. There are not only air-mail services with London, Liverpool and Belfast, but through this organization Glasgow's newspapers are read in the Western Isles and the Orkney and Shetland groups on the day of publication.

ANNUAL REVENUE

After St Mungo, perhaps the most important man to walk Glasgow's streets was James Watt. It was, in fact, as he entered Glasgow Green that he had the flash of genius which resulted in the harnessing of steam. In 1769 he took out a patent for his engine. The simultaneous arrival of steam-power and the sea was for Glasgow a stroke of luck that shaped its destiny. Through steam Glasgow was enabled to develop a great shipbuilding industry as well as engineering and textiles, and from the deepened port to sell the products of the west of Scotland in all the markets of the world.

The progress made by trade as the result is well shown in an abstract from the Statement of Annual Revenue issued by the Clyde

Trust. In 1770, before steam had become a real force and when the deepening of the river had just begun, the annual revenue of the Port of Glasgow was £147. In 1800 it had risen to £3319. In 1830, when the age of machinery was well under way, the annual revenue was £20,296. In 1860 it had increased to £97,983; in 1890 to £356,202, and in 1920 to £1,077,998. In 1933, during the depression, the revenue dropped to £733,721, after which it again took an upward trend, and in 1937 the figure was £949,935. In the same year the tonnage of vessels entering and leaving the port created a record with 15,132,553 tons.

SHIPS FOR THE SEVEN SEAS

Shipbuilding is the greatest productive industry on the Clyde. Nowadays ships must be fitted up like hotels, and therefore ancillary industries spring up to supply them with the types of equipment they require. Thus many specialized branches of the engineering industry are active in and around Glasgow, such as the manufacture of engines, boilers, pumps, valves, fans, cranes, ventilating plants, refrigerating plants, ship's boats and so on. It is calculated that for every person working in a shipyard two others are employed to supply him with materials for his work. The Forth Bridge and London Tower Bridge were both built by Glasgow engineering firms, and the R34, the first airship to cross the Atlantic, was a Glasgow-built vessel.

Out of every five vessels on the seas today it is calculated that one is Clyde-built. Despite the depression the gross tonnage launched in the Clyde for the year 1934 was, according to Lloyd's Annual Summary of Mercantile Shipbuilding of the World, 237,631. This figure exceeded the output of Japan's shipyards by 85,211 tons, those of Germany by 163,898 tons, those of Italy by 210,993 tons, those of the United States by 213,006 tons, and those of France by 221,681 tons. Last year the Clyde district again occupied first place

among the shipbuilding centres of the British Isles, the output being 336,897 tons, which exceeds that of the second on the list, namely the Wear, by 181,174 tons.

ALONG THE QUAYS

Glasgow's quayage extends twelve miles with a water area of 352 acres and a land area of 266 acres. This includes tidal docks which vessels drawing twenty-three feet of water may enter or leave at any state of the tide. There are in addition eight miles of single and double storey sheds for the accommodation of general goods. Six miles below Glasgow Bridge Rothesay Dock, the entire equipment of which is worked by electricity, provides for the shipment of coal and the import of iron ores. Nearer the centre of the city are Prince's Dock and Queen's Dock, both equipped with powerful electric cranes and facilities for the rapid discharge and removal of cargoes.

In the Meadows Grannary 31,000 tons of grain can be stored at one time and as much as 784,347 tons of grain have been discharged here in a year. At Merklands Quay, the cattle lairage, more than a quarter of a million cattle have been landed in a single year. Oil, timber, machinery, all kinds of fruit, are provided for, and three graving-docks have been constructed for the repair of vessels. The scheme for utilizing 700 acres of ground at Shieldhall will add six large tidal docks or basins when completed. George V Dock, the first of these, was opened seven years ago.

TRADE WITH THE EMPIRE

Glasgow is busily developing reciprocal trade with the Empire. Ten years ago imports of Australian meats, fresh fruits, canned fruits, eggs, butter, wines and timber were practically non-existent. To-day 25,000 tons of these commodities are imported direct into the Clyde. Ten years ago only thirty-seven vessels from Australia and New Zealand entered the port, but last year there were ninety-six. Cheese

imports from New Zealand have been doubled, meat imports trebled, and there is five times the quantity of New Zealand butter imported. Likewise the South African fruit industry, which formerly found its only channel in Southampton, is now shipping packages direct to Glasgow.

Glasgow is usually identified with the heavy industries, but in the possession of the city's Chamber of Commerce there is a list of over 2000 different articles manufactured by members of the Chamber in Glasgow and district. Many of these articles are exported and their variety is surprising. They include bathroom fittings and bagpipes, Christmas cards and steam-hammers, warships and washers, handkerchiefs and steel chimneys, colliery cages and nurses' caps, football bladders and marine boilers, filters and shop-fronts, ladies' hose and hydraulic machines, sporrans and drying-sheds, rivets and railway carriages, pyjamas and power-houses, and many others.

THE MEN OF THE CLYDE

Among the masses of machinery and the noisy fury of production the great human figures of history associated with Glasgow are mere wandering ghosts. Wallace, Robert the Bruce, Mary Queen of Scots, Cromwell, Montrose, Claverhouse and even Bonnie Prince Charlie, whose memorial tablet at the corner of Trongate is only one of many, are little remembered in this practical city. The names that make romance are those like Henry Bell, who launched his steamboat the *Comet* in 1812; John Brown & Co., who launched the *Queen Mary*; the Napier family, through whom the Cunard Line found a berth in the Clyde; Alexander Allan, who brought the city into touch with the Canadian Pacific Co. (though the concentration of the direction and control of these concerns has recently gone south); great scientists like Lord Kelvin, or indeed any of the shipbuilders, engineers and industrial leaders, whose 'brains, energy and deter-



Scottish Travel Association

Two of the world's most romantic beauty spots, Loch Lomond and the Trossachs, are within an hour's journey of Glasgow by rail and road. The banks of Loch Lomond and Rowardennan Pier

mination' have directed the sons and daughters of Glasgow and the surrounding district to make this mighty seaport what it is. The workers of the Clyde, disciplined at the University or technical colleges or in shipyard or factory, are distinguished for their intense pride of craft. They are confident, kindly, direct and ingenious, and the products of their skill, whether a creation like the giant Cunarder now under construction or a humble tack, have found their way round the world.

THE FUTURE OF GLASGOW

This year there is being built in Glasgow a great Exhibition which will demonstrate the extent of its reciprocal trade with the Empire, the multiplicity of its products, and the invincible determination of its people to grapple with whatever changing conditions of trade the future may bring.

The shadow of depression which, for so long, hung over the City is now moving away. The courage of the community

has revived and, with the stimulus of better trade, it is becoming the fount of new enterprises. The rearmament programme of the Government has greatly helped this movement, but there is also discernible a solid foundation for peaceful employment, which will continue when the spate of armament orders is past. There are not wanting signs that the grit and determination of the people will in time retrieve the pre-war glories which some thought had faded for ever.

And if, unhappily, war should again come upon us, Glasgow is destined to play a part of unexampled importance. Its geographical position confers upon it a great advantage over the more vulnerable towns of the south and east and might well give it a pre-eminent character in the services which it could render to the nation. But whatever fate may confront it, Glasgow may be trusted to play a great part in the world through the daring enterprise and unquenchable spirit of its people.

Zulus Wanted

Recruiting for King Solomon's Mines

by JOHN GOLDMAN

WHEN I went to South Africa last year, as one of a team sent out to film the African sections of *King Solomon's Mines*, I little knew what I had to expect.

In London I had been responsible for collecting some five hundred Africans from all over the town. Having found that easy, I foresaw no difficulty in South Africa. We wanted fifteen hundred warriors. We understood that we should have no difficulty in raising any number up to ten or fifteen thousand. So, with assurance, to Natal we went. And then, day after day, we waited for our Zulu warriors to come in. None came.

We sent out scouts and recruiting agents, we built a large kraal, we promised high wages, good food and meat, native beer, tobacco and snuff, and we tried to make it clear that the work was light, more like play.

We approached the chiefs. They promised us support. Langalake, chief of many more thousands than we wanted, made a speech in our presence, urging his men to join. One day an agent telephoned to us: "If you can get a special train here tomorrow at noon, I'll have three hundred men on the platform". We sent the train. The agent was standing with four aged warriors. We waited all afternoon for the rest. They never arrived. And what was the reason?

This was harvesting time, they said, and they were tending their crops. But we knew that the Zulu man leaves farming to the women folk. In former times the men had been hunters and warriors and now, when there is nothing more to hunt and when fighting is sternly suppressed by the whites, and even assegais are taken away, the men prefer to sit the day long under thorn trees and smoke; or, if several get

together, to sing. The songs usually refer to domestic affairs; some to the former fighting glory of the tribe, others to legendary stories of birds or animals. Such songs are simple and rhythmic; they are repetitive yet the longer you listen the more powerfully they affect you.

Not satisfied with the harvesting excuse, we set about finding the real reason for their unwillingness to join us. Stories began to drift in from all sides, and when we pieced them together they made strange reading. Some thought that we were agents of the British Government, and that we wanted to trans-ship them overseas to fight a war for us. Others said that we were associated with the South African Government. Dingaan's Day was approaching, the anniversary of the assassination of the early Dutch voortrekkers Gert Maritz and Piet Retief by Dingaan, King of the Zulus, in 1838.

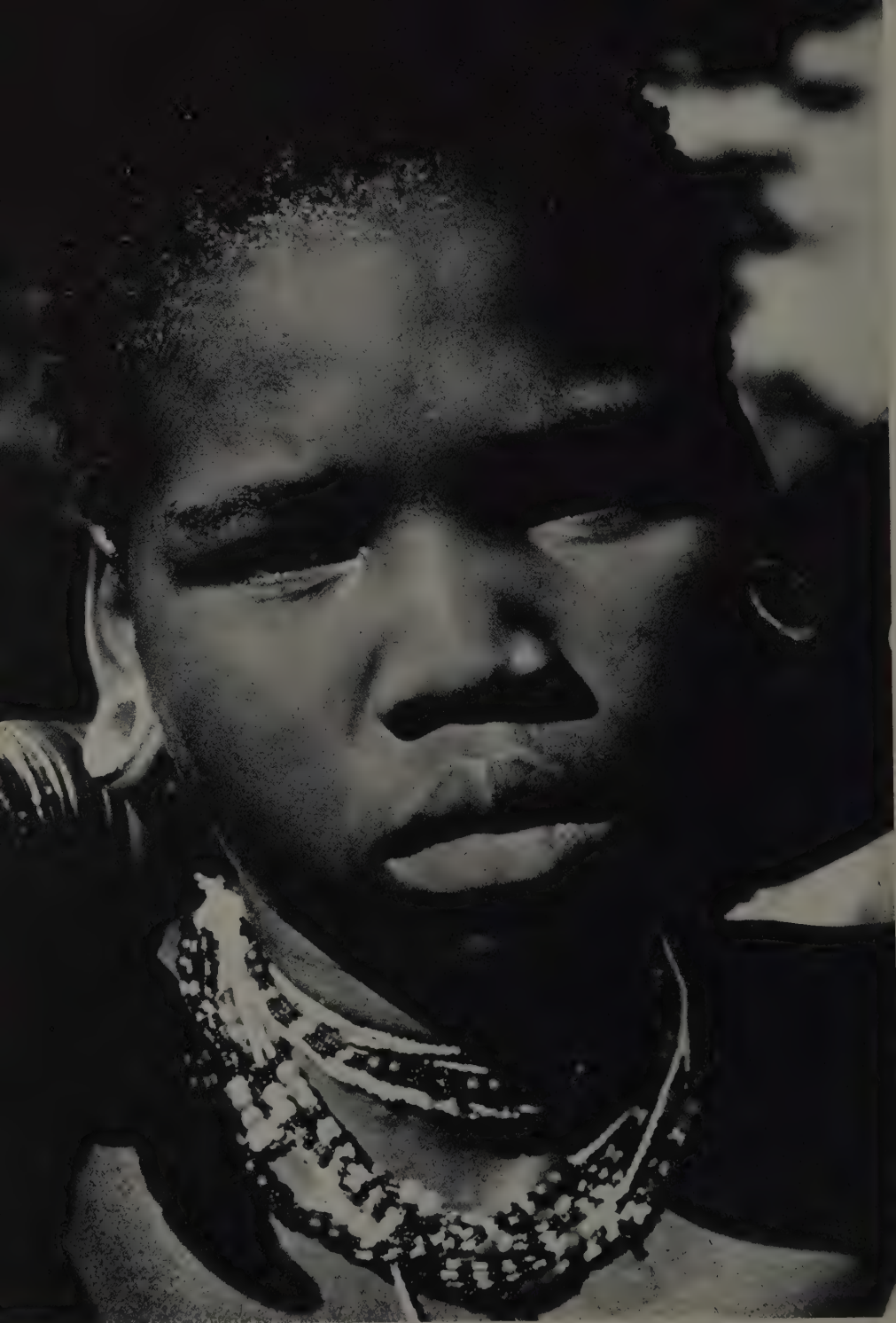
The Zulus saw the great kraal we were building; they knew we were asking for the flower of their youth; and they had heard of the two hundred packing-cases we had brought with us from England. What else could these cases contain but dynamite, and what other object could a white man have in offering such good wages for so little work, than some terrible attack? We were staging a great massacre, they said.

But Dingaan's Day came and passed. There was no massacre. Our two hundred packing-cases contained nothing more fearful than ostrich plumes, paper head-dresses, rubber-headed assegais—how they laughed over these—flimsy wooden battle-axes, thousands of sets of skins, and cardboard shields.

After Dingaan's Day they began to come



Photographs by John Goldman















in. But they enlisted slowly by twos and threes. They still had their doubts of us. One tribe, when their chief urged them to join, said that they no longer trusted their chief, for they knew that he was in the pay of the whites. They insisted that we were agents of the Government sent out to collect the Poll Tax. A Zulu has to pay a tax of one pound for every hut in his kraal. The size of his kraal depends on the number of his wives, since by custom he must provide a hut for each wife and one for himself. Often, if a man has as many as five wives, this tax is exceptionally heavy. Great numbers are unable to pay it. They evade it as long as possible, but when forced they will work for the whites: on the farms, in the factories, on the railways, as house-boys; or they will even go to the Rand to a job in the mines.

They next thought that we were recruiting-agents for the mines. It was common knowledge that labour was scarce. Among the Zulus, the mines were unpopular. Work in them meant separation from their wives, children and homes.

In the whole three months that we were in Natal we never built up the kraal even to a thousand men. We had the greatest difficulty to keep those we had. They were nervous. They wanted to go home. One day it was a child that had died (sometimes true, sometimes not). Another it was a wife who was ill. On one occasion they came to us in a body and said that they must all go home. We asked why.

One of the chiefs spoke up, making a dignified public speech and coming slowly to the point, according to custom. At last he told us that although the river was only half a mile away, across a field, they had been forbidden to go there, and now they were returning home because they were dirty and wanted to wash. After some trouble we arranged for them to cross the field, single file, under

armed escort to see that they did not stray from the path. The Zulus value bodily cleanliness. One evening, in the compound, a man had a quarrel with his son over a cake of soap. The son attacked his father and tore his ear. The Zulu's temper is sudden and fierce. We had our court in the compound, presided over by one of our nine chiefs. The son was brought up before the court, accused by his father and fined. But by afternoon the whole incident was forgotten.

As quick as their temper is their sense of enjoyment. The smallest thing will make them laugh and shriek with delight. The sight of me lying on my belly taking photographs, or hiding behind bushes and rocks, filled them with delight. Day after day they would beg to see the 'likeness'. When occasionally I showed them the results they would hand them carefully round, turning their faces away to hide their amusement that I had cut off their bodies or their legs and only shown their faces.

One day Badanile, the chief Induna, asked me if I would take a real photograph of him 'with all his body and his shield and his assegai and advancing with his Impi behind him as though going into battle'. He wanted this, he said, so that he could take it home to his kraal and show it to his wives and children, and so that his children could keep it to show their children what a great man he had been. When I presented him with the picture, he bowed and thanked me with a courtesy that today is so rare it seems almost strange; and in return he handed to me a magnificent knobkerrie, polished with the palms of his own hands.

I wish I could have remained behind when the film-unit returned to England. No complete photographic record of Zulu life in its natural conditions has been made, and great will be the regret when, soon, the time for making one has passed by, and it will be too late.

Germany's Former Colonies

The subject of Germany's former colonies is likely to be under frequent discussion in the near future. We have therefore decided to publish a series of short articles giving the most important relevant facts about these territories. Mr Balfour, who has recently travelled through the greater part of Equatorial Africa, contributes two articles to the series, of which this is the first

I. Tanganyika and Ruanda-Urundi

by PATRICK BALFOUR

THE Mandatory System was introduced under Article XXII of the Covenant of the League of Nations for the benefit of those colonies and territories which had ceased to belong to Germany but which were inhabited by peoples not yet fitted to stand alone in the modern world. The more advanced nations undertook the tutelage of these peoples under conditions which varied according to their stage of development.

THUS three types of mandate were established. 'A' mandates covered those former dominions of the Turkish Empire whose independence as nations could be provisionally recognized, subject to advice and assistance from the Mandatory Power, until they were qualified to stand alone. 'B' mandates guaranteed to more primitive peoples, notably in Central Africa, freedom of conscience and religion subject to the maintenance of public order and morals, the prohibition of such abuses as the slave, arms and liquor traffic, the establishment of a military or naval base, of the military training of the natives for other than purposes of police or defence. They secured also equal commercial opportunities in those territories to all States members of the League. A like equality was assured to the United States by special treaty, and is still being enjoyed by Germany even though she has left the League. 'C' mandates were created for remoter, smaller, or more sparsely populated territories which, subject to the same safeguards, could best

be administered as integral portions of the Mandatory Power's territory.

UNDER the terms of the Treaty of Versailles the former German colonies had been transferred to the Allied Powers. The territories were, therefore, distributed jointly by them and not

An Advisory Watch-dog by the League of Nations. The Mandatory Powers, however, were to be responsible to the League, as trustees, for their good management. Every year they were to give an account of their stewardship to a Permanent Mandates Commission established at Geneva as a species of advisory watch-dog. The Commission consists of nine members, the majority of whom are nationals from Mandatory Powers. It receives and discusses the annual reports of the Mandatory Powers and reports upon them, with its own conclusions, to the Council of the League.

THE mandates were distributed as follows. In the 'A' class Syria was apportioned to France, and Palestine and Mesopotamia to Great Britain. In the 'B' class Great Britain was entrusted with German East

Distribution of the Mandates Africa (Tanganyika) and the smaller sections of Togoland and the Cameroons; France with the larger sections of those territories, and Belgium with Ruanda-Urundi. In the 'C' class the Union of South Africa took over German South-West Africa, and New Zealand the German Samoan Islands; Nauru, in the

**A, B and C
Mandates**

Pacific, was assigned to Great Britain; the remaining German possessions south of the equator to Australia, and the German possessions north of the equator to Japan.

AT the beginning of the Great War the Germans held their own in Tanganyika against the British forces to the north. The impenetrability

The Campaign in East Africa

of the country was on their side and they were fortunate in their commander, von

Lettow-Vorbeck, who won the respect both of his own native troops and of his enemy. British reinforcements from India failed to make any headway inland from the Coast and became immobilized at Mombasa. It was not until 1916 that the tide began to turn. General Smuts arrived in East Africa with a large body of South African troops and took command of the British operations. By a triple advance from the north, from the north-west (with the aid of the Belgians) and from Nyasaland in the south, aided by the co-operation of the Navy on the coast, British troops slowly, but successfully, converged on von Lettow. By the end of 1917 he had retired with his armies into Portuguese territory. The war was continued largely by native troops, but von Lettow and his men evaded the enemy until the Armistice, when he formally surrendered at Abercorn, in Northern Rhodesia.

GREAT BRITAIN thus entered upon the administration of her largest colonial territory. Tanganyika extends over some

Tanganyika Territory

365,000 square miles. It is divided into three divergent types of country: first,

the low-lying coastal district, narrow in the north but widening until it occupies the greater part of the southern territory; secondly, three fertile mountain regions, the Kilimanjaro range in the north, the Rand Mountains stretching in a broken line from the Usambara-Pare range on the north-east, to the Ungoni and Uhehe or 'Southern High-

lands' in the south-west, and the highlands of the lake region, to the north and west, which fall into the great Central African Rift; thirdly, the central plateau, which is largely waterless and which covers the greater part of the territory. The climate is proportionately varied. The coast region is warm and damp, with a moderate rainfall, the Central Plateau is hot and dry, with little rainfall, while the highlands are cool and moist, with greater extremes, and a considerable rainfall.

THE principal products of the territory are agricultural. German plantations before the war employed some six hundred

Changes in Cultivation

Europeans, exclusive of their owners. Native cultivation, though subsidized by the government, had not developed



American Colony

The memorial at Dar-es-Salaam to the native soldiers who fell in the Great War that changed the destiny of German East Africa

to any considerable extent and it was estimated in 1914 that only $\frac{1}{800}$ of the land was under cultivation. For many years the principal crop was rubber, which was grown by natives and Europeans, in the lower-lying districts. But the cultivation of sisal hemp, which can be grown at high altitudes, had outstripped it by 1912 to become the territory's premier industry. Next in importance came cotton, in the lowlands, coffee, in the highlands, copra and ground nuts. Apart from agricultural produce, hides and skins were exported in considerable quantities.

The mineral wealth of the territory had not yet been fully explored. The export of gold from the region of Lake Nyasa and elsewhere began only in 1911, while mica was exported to Germany in inconsiderable quantities.

TODAY sisal is by far the most important product of the territory, accounting for 41% of its total exports. Cotton, which is mainly native grown, comes next, followed by coffee, grown partly by Europeans and partly by natives. Gold now represents 10% of the total exports. Rubber and copra are

Germany's
Share of
Exports

hardly developed at all. The value of the total exports from the territory has increased from £1,570,915 in 1912 to £4,805,958 in 1936. Before the war 50% of these exports went to Germany and less than 11% to Great Britain. They accounted for $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1% of Germany's total imports. Today Great Britain takes 32% of Tanganyika's exports, while the British Empire as a whole accounts for 59%. Germany, apart from a percentage via Belgium, imports only 7% of the total, $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1% of her total imports.

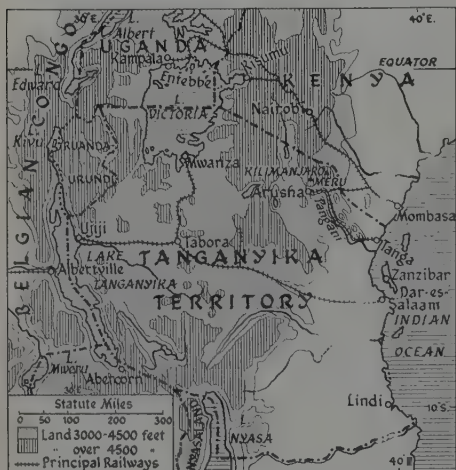
In 1912 50% of Tanganyika's imports came from Germany and 5% from Great Britain (excluding the rest of the British Empire which accounted for 15% more). In 1936 imports from Germany were 14.1%, and from Great Britain 27.2%. These figures represent $\frac{3}{10}$ of 1% of Germany's total exports in 1912 and $\frac{1}{15}$ of 1% of her total exports in 1936.

THE majority of the native peoples in Tanganyika are of Bantu stock, but throughout its history the territory has been swept by invaders who have settled among the indigenous population and have often interbred with

Africans,
Asiatics and
Europeans

them. Notable among these invaders are the Masai and kindred Hamitic races, most of whom inhabit a reserve in the north, south of Mount Meru. In the south, in the neighbourhood of Lake Nyasa, are people of Zulu stock. On the coast and elsewhere are the bastard Arab-Swahili people who ruled a great part of the territory in the 19th century and who have spread the Swahili language and culture, and, to a lesser extent, the Mohammedan religion.

In 1913 the native population of Tanganyika, exclusive of Ruanda-Urundi, was estimated at 4,000,000. Today it is estimated at a million more. Before the war there were 5336 Europeans in the territory, of whom 4107 were of German nationality and only 90 were British. The coloured





Eastern African Dependencies

Patrick Balfour

Lordly Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain in Africa, is visible 100 miles away. Its slopes are dotted with coffee plantations and it dominates a fertile agricultural district

There are still 3000 Germans in Tanganyika today, only about 1000 less than before the War, when they included officials; and German liners still call regularly at Dar-es-Salaam, the capital and chief seaport, as here seen



(Right) *Sisal*, used in making rope and twine, accounts for nearly half Tanganyika's exports—about one-third of the total world production. It is grown entirely by European planters



Cotton, however, the next most important export product, is mainly native-grown; and native farmers also produce two-thirds of the coffee, which occupies third place. (Below) Native women hand-picking coffee beans in a curing factory

Eastern African Dependencies

Eastern African Dependencies



population other than native (principally Asiatic) was 14,933. Today the European population amounts to nearly 9000, of whom over 4000 are British (including South African Dutch) and nearly 3000 German. The Asiatic population has more than doubled, and the growing number of Indians presents one of the territory's most important problems.

BEFORE the war the German Government's native policy tended to centralization and the break-up of the tribal system.

Government agents, usually of Arab or Swahili extraction, were appointed to rule over the various parts of the country, with which they often had no racial or territorial con-

Native
Authority
Established



F. J. Pedler

The system of indirect rule introduced by Britain enables the native administrations to finance such health developments as maternity clinics. A native mother with trained native midwives and a missionary nurse at the Kolondoto clinic

nection. Since the Germans employed an administrative staff of only 79 Europeans, the supervision of these agents was very incomplete. The British have gradually introduced the system of indirect rule, which recognizes the powers of the native chiefs, maintains tribal customs, and has set up a system of native treasuries, native administration, and native courts of justice under the benevolent supervision of the European District Officer. The natives themselves are thus responsible for law and order, the collection of taxes, the census of their people and livestock, the maintenance of local roads, and the supervision of public health in their own districts; they pay the expenses of this administration from their own treasuries; they administer justice in minor civil cases and in cases of offence against native law and custom, while the European Courts wield an advanced system of European justice in graver misdemeanours.

In the matter of native education, hygiene, agriculture and communications the Mandatory Power has perfected a system which, before the war, was already more advanced than the system of administration.

RUANDA and Urundi, the fertile mountain kingdoms to the north-west of Tanganyika, were allotted under mandate

Ruanda-
Urundi

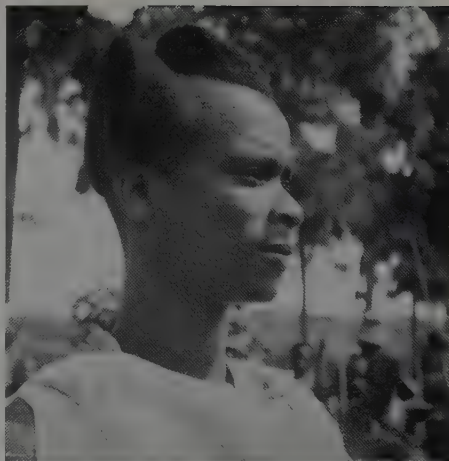
to Belgium in return for her share in their conquest, and are now administered as part of the Belgian Congo. A Belgian army had marched through Ruanda and had assisted in the capture of Tabora, in Tanganyika.

Ruanda-Urundi, before the war, was virtually unoccupied by the Germans. They maintained four military posts there, but otherwise had hardly yet attempted to exploit or administer the country. Belgium, therefore, had to start from the beginning. It was not in fact until 1930 that the pacification was complete and a programme of development begun.

Ruanda-Urundi is a country of fertile uplands extending to a height of 10,000 feet, with a cool and moist climate. It is the most densely populated region of tropical Africa. Though it extends over a mere 35,000 square miles, a tenth of the area of Tanganyika, it has a native population of four millions, only a million less than that of Tanganyika. There is thus no room for European agricultural settlement, as in the highlands of Tanganyika, and the European population numbers less than a thousand. It had been the intention of the Germans to use Ruanda-Urundi as a reservoir of labour for the more sparsely populated plantation districts of Tanganyika. The Belgians, on the contrary, discourage such migration and are developing a system of native cultivation within the country itself. The native has always grown various forms of grain, roots and vegetables. In addition he is now being encouraged to grow cotton in the low-lying regions, and coffee in the uplands.

TRADE, however, is relatively unimportant, and the export figures are small. In 1936, out of a total of 17,876 tons of produce, 75% of which went to Belgium, 1250 tons of coffee and 526 tons of cotton were exported from the country. The total also included 1267 tons of skins. Ruanda-Urundi is an important cattle-grazing country. But the cow is to a great extent a sacred beast and has never, in the past, been sold for meat. Under the Belgian régime this tradition is breaking down, and Ruanda cattle are now sold as meat in Uganda and elsewhere. The full mineral wealth of the country is problematical, but tin mines are at work and in 1936 1421 tons were exported. The imports into Ruanda-Urundi amounted, in 1936, to 13,755 tons, of which only 5145 tons came from Belgium.

Rich and
self-
contained



Patrick Balfour

Conquerors of the indigenous races of Ruanda-Urundi, the Watussi, born rulers, have a kingly bearing and wear their hair in sculptured curves

NINETY per cent of the population of Ruanda-Urundi are Bantu peoples. The remaining ten per cent are the ruling

Belgian
aims and
methods

Hamitic race, the Watussi, who with their cattle conquered the country and rule it still. The principle of the Belgian administration has been to break down the feudal abuses of pre-war times while maintaining feudal forms of government. Indirect rule is maintained, somewhat after the manner of Tanganyika. The Watussi chiefs, with the kings of Ruanda and Urundi above them, still rule the subject peoples, levying taxes and administering justice, but under the guidance of the Belgian administration. They have proved good natural rulers, and amenable to European reforms. Meanwhile the Belgians have opened up the country with three thousand miles of roads and, largely with the aid of concessions, have given it educational and medical services which it did not yet enjoy under the purely military, and largely nominal, occupation of the Germans.

Water in Holland

Photographs by J. G. van Agtmaal



Holland has 4000 miles of waterways linking her towns with one another and with the sea. They are her arteries of trade and the foundation of her maritime greatness; they also reveal the genius of her people for combining utility and charm. The Singel and the Lutheran Church, Amsterdam



Water lends a distinctive character to most Dutch towns, whether it stirs them with the tide, as at Veere in Zeeland (above) and Spakenburg on the Zuider Zee (below)—





—or whether it flows through them slowly, almost imperceptibly, under little bridges, beneath shady trees, and past neatly painted cottages that seem to dream over their own reflections





Peaceful waterways, winding across the summer landscape to distant horizons, nourish the meadows of Holland; rich grazing for the far-famed Frisian cattle that supply the milk for Dutch cheeses





With austere touch winter etches deeper the dark lines of river and brimming ditch, and the delicate tracery of pollarded willows, framing the windmill so inseparably connected with the Dutch scene





When Spain strove to subdue the Netherlands, the water was as armour girt about the walls of towns and isolated strongholds. (Above) The Koppelpoort, Amersfoort; (below) the castle of Waardenburg



Climbing in the Caucasus

by JOHN R. JENKINS

For the first time since 1914, a party of British mountaineers visited the Caucasus last summer, and ascended several peaks in 'the grandest chain of ice mountains that Europe can claim'. Mr Jenkins' report of varied climbing amid majestic surroundings, a hospitable reception by Russian climbers, and efficient staff-work on the part of Intourist, should encourage others to imitate their example

THEY taught me at school that the highest mountain in Europe was Mont Blanc, which was in Switzerland. This is quite wrong; Mont Blanc is in France, and Elbruz in the Caucasus, whose western dome rises to 18,470 feet, is easily the lord of European mountains.

The Caucasus stretches in a narrow chain some 500 miles in length spanning the land between the Black and Caspian Seas. It begins with an evil-smelling swamp on the Black Sea and ends in a sun-baked desert on the Caspian; in between lies the grandest range of ice mountains in Europe. The central group, lying between Elbruz on the west and Kasbek (16,546 feet) on the east, is a complex system of glaciers, towers and ridges of red granite. In this region are still many unclimbed peaks and little-visited glens, providing a happy hunting-ground for the more adventurous mountaineer who looks beyond the Alps, where in summer every valley is crowded with trippers and every ridge and mountain face has been climbed.

The early pioneering work in the Caucasus had been done at the end of last century largely by well-known British mountaineers, among them Mummery, Freshfield, Clinton Dent, Woolley, Cockin and Holder. This exploration was relinquished in 1914 when Mr Raeburn's party made an exciting escape from the Adai Kokh mountains under the shadow of war, and since then the work has been carried on by Austrian and German expeditions.

The advent of the Soviet régime presented political barriers which until recently proved insurmountable, but contemporary articles in mountaineering

journals showed that a number of foreign expeditions had met with little or no hindrance. A group of enthusiasts at Oxford University made tentative inquiries and found that visas could be obtained, and in the end a party of four left England on July 10, 1937, for the Caucasus.

The climbers were M. S. Taylor, R. A. Hodgkin, R. L. Beaumont, who spoke Russian, and myself. Intourist, the Russian State travel agency, arranged to conduct us across the Ukraine and deliver us complete with food and equipment at Tegenekli at the head of the Baksan valley. We should then be free to climb and travel among the mountains for the next five weeks, and at the end of our journey they promised to collect us at Bezingi on our return from Svanetia.

I will not describe in detail the dull and wearying journey across Europe, flat and featureless plain all the way, which entailed 100 hours of third-class discomfort. We travelled via Harwich, Flushing, Berlin and Warsaw, and the Russian border at Shpetovka was our half-way mark.

Everywhere in Russia Intourist officials (usually charming ladies with lacquered finger-nails) met our trains and, although we were only third-class passengers, they took us to hotels of luxurious appearance in high-powered American cars. Our brief impressions of Russian towns were gleaned only from fleeting tours of Kiev, Kharkov and Nalchik.

We found that Nalchik, the railway base to the north of the Caucasus, was one of the chief Russian health resorts, where hospitals and sanatoria have been and are being built, not to mention banks, schools,

clubs, cinemas and civic and scientific buildings. The town itself is being rebuilt under the current Five-Year Plan, and although we admired the distinctive modern conceptions of the architects, local talent does not seem able to express itself very well in bricks and mortar. The art of craftsmanship is comparatively unknown in Russia; collectivization seems to breed quantity rather than quality. Our guide was at a loss to explain why we should see, on glancing through the windows of the new Institute of Biological Research, a number of natives playing billiards.

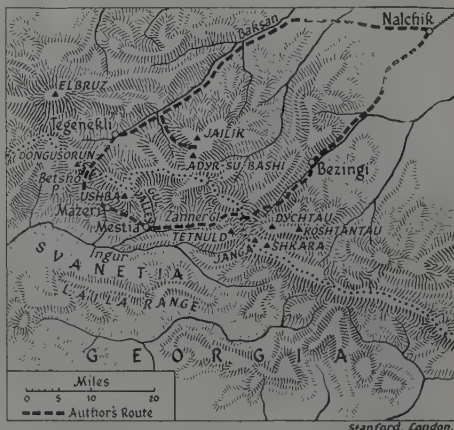
The transference of peasants from agriculture to industry, combined with the ever-increasing incentive of piece-work, seems to result in frequent cases of neurosis. Among the flower gardens and parks to the south of the town we were shown a number of sanatoria, many of them converted villas from Tsarist days. We were shown round by a white-robed doctor who told us that there were 800 cases under treatment, the majority of patients staying two months.

The shops in Nalchik were thronged by peasants and dignified hawk-nosed Balkarians from the mountains. Everywhere we saw expensive luxuries for sale; electric kettles, radios, picnic outfits, comfortable settees—beyond the pocket of the ordinary

collective farm-worker, but an incentive for him to work harder and become a highly paid *Stakhanovite*.

A charming feature of Soviet totalitarianism is the weekly treat for children. We saw a lorry carrying a brass-band played by clown-like figures wearing funny noses and paper hats, moving down the crowded street followed by a host of delighted children. This smacked more of Groucho than of Karl Marx!

On July 16 we left behind Five-Year Plans and sight-seeing tours and, loading ourselves and our kit into a Russian-made Ford, we were bumped across the dusty plain towards the mountains. We soon entered one of the limestone gorges forming the northern gates of the Caucasus and drove up the Baksan valley, passing squalid Balkar villages of flat-roofed windowless hovels, built of logs and mud, with their grotesque conical chimneys. We passed a hydro-electric station and a collective farm or two, the only signs of interference by the State with these peasant people. Now and then horsemen would gallop by in their long black sheepskin *bourkas* and wide-brimmed hats. They wore high boots and every man carried at his waist a dagger in an ornamental scabbard. These were dressed like the Cossacks of opera or ballet, but often romance was shattered by the





R. A. Hodgkin

The northern limestone gates of the Caucasus leading into the Baksan valley. From Nalchik to Tegenekli the party travelled in a Russian-made Ford, the only means of transport to the mountains



R. A. Hodgkin

In the Baksan valley: an old-style Balkar village with windowless mud-and-log hovels



M. S. Taylor

An unexpectedly luxurious Intourist hotel at Tegenekli caters for aspirants to Elbruz, the only popularized mountain in the Caucasus. The party loading donkeys before leaving for the Betsho Pass

sight of an open-necked zip-fastening shirt or a Western cap pulled over one ear. In the mountains the shepherds and peasants wear the traditional sheepskin hat and hide shoes stuffed with straw.

Collectivization is being introduced gradually. The fields around the villages are still cultivated in the traditional way by the women and old men. The younger men work on the collective farms or migrate to the attractions of free education and piece-work in the cities. As the old villages stagnate, the new ones being built round the collective farms will gradually replace them. Today the old system predominates, but the new one is rapidly gaining ground.

At last we came into the heart of the mountains with the white mass of many-peaked Dongusorun stretching across the head of the valley. Our eighty-mile drive concluded at Tegenekli, where we found to our surprise that there was a small In-

tourist hotel. This caters for those travellers who wish to ascend Elbruz, the only popularized mountain in the Caucasus. The climb must be exceedingly monotonous, but it seems to satisfy the mountaineering ambitions of many Russians. They make the ascent in long single-file parties of thirty or forty (collectivization again!), and return apparently satisfied to leave untouched the finer mountains of the range.

'The All-Union Committee for Physical Culture and Sports of the People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R.' has, however, done much to encourage climbing, and in the valleys and on the peaks of Jailik and Adyr-su Bashi we met mountaineering parties. They have a 'School of Alpinism' in a neighbouring valley and an elaborate system of camps of potential rescue parties at salient points, all in wireless communication. That certain individuals have reached a high standard of ability is shown

by the fact that the traverse of the twin peaks of Ushba, one of the hardest mountaineering feats in the world, has been made recently by a number of Russian parties. On most of the peaks we climbed we found notes in the summit cairns giving evidence of previous Russian ascents.

On July 16 serious work began, and we spent the first three days in relaying food and equipment up the alpine Adyr-su valley to a high base-camp on the moraines of the Junom Glacier at its head. We were now in the centre of the Jailik group, a spur to the north of the main range. The hub of the group was Jailik itself (14,868 feet) with three long granite ridges radiating outwards from it. The one which most occupied our attention was the ridge running due south, comprising the peaks of Kichkidar, Kupoltau, Junomkara and Orubashi. Beyond Orubashi it dropped to the Orubashi Pass, whence it sprang up

to the summit of Adyr-su Bashi (14,337 feet) in a great jagged north-east ridge. From a beautiful unnamed snow-peak to the west of Adyr-su Bashi, we studied the unclimbed south face of Jailik and decided to attempt it at the first opportunity. First, however, we climbed Kichkidar in bad weather and were chased down its west ridge by fitful hail-storms, reaching base-camp to find everything under water. We had no choice but to run down to the main Adyr-su valley and throw ourselves on the mercy of one of the five Russian holiday-camps there. Arriving somewhat weary at the Kharkov Mountaineering Club's tents just before dark, we were received most hospitably and given a huge meal and beds in a near-by tent.

Two days later three of us stood at dawn at the foot of the great snow gully in Jailik's south face. After a thousand feet of ascent, we climbed up a frozen waterfall, hand-



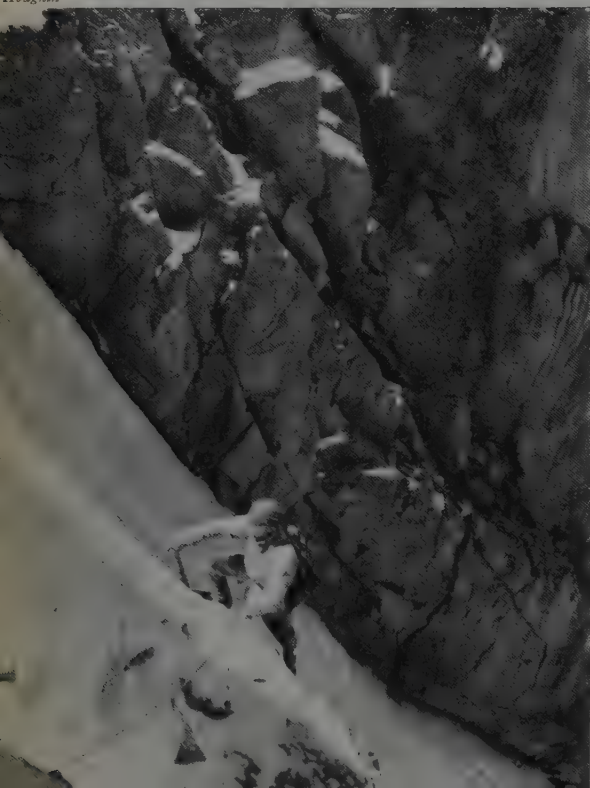
M. S. Taylor

A halt in the Adyr-su valley, leading from the Baksan towards the Jailik group. The donkey-boy is studying the only authoritative map of the Caucasus, made by Douglas Freshfield 50 years ago



Hodgkin

R. A. Hodgkin



The hitherto unclimbed south face of Jailik. On its left base may be seen the snow gully that formed the initial stage of the climb. 1000 feet up the gully was a frozen water-fall in which hand- and foot-holds had to be hacked. (Left) Reaching sunshine above the head of the fall



M. S. Taylor,

M. S.

The frozen waterfall led to a notch on the skyline, from which the party climbed for three hours in the hot sun, up rough granite slabs and snow gullies, to the sharp rock of the summit where they rested, the first men to ascend Jailik by the south face. (Right) A steep rock-climb

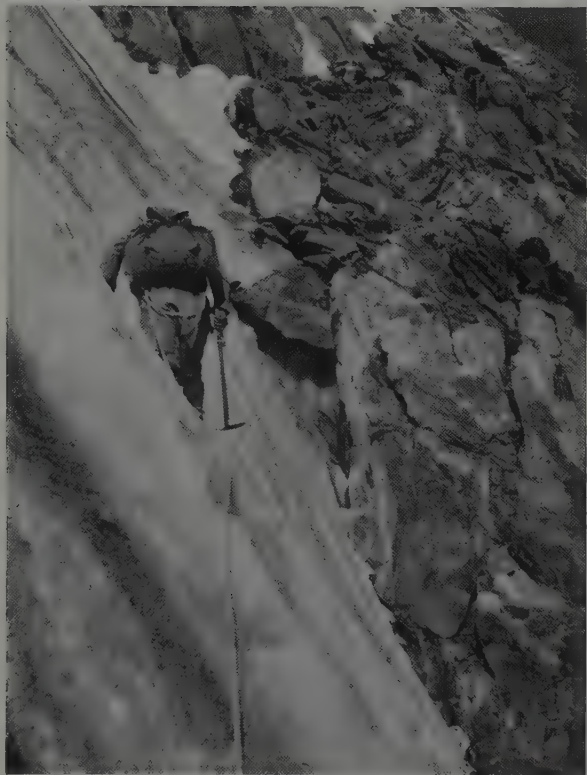




R. A. Hodgkin

M. S. Taylor

Adyr-su Bashi held out a challenge which two members of the party accepted. (Above) The summit and north face in shadow, with the lower snow-slopes of Orubashi in the foreground



(Left) A major difficulty in ascending the unclimbed north-east ridge was a gully of hard blue ice at an angle of 50 degrees. Though this was only 30 feet wide, it took over half an hour to cut steps across

and foot-holds having to be hacked in the ice, and reached a skyline notch high up on the mountain. From here, for the next three hours, we climbed in hot sun up rough granite slabs and snow gullies and reached the summit in the early afternoon. Care was needed on the descent down rock ribs and ice slopes, and we did not reach camp until the inevitable evening mists were rising from the valley.

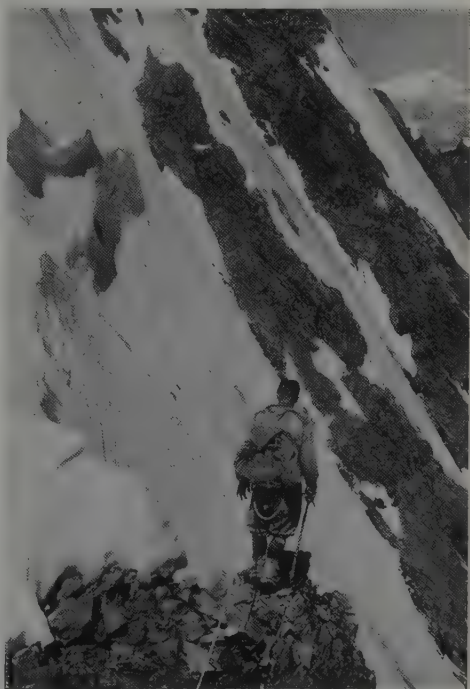
Next day we achieved the climber's ambition by bagging two virgin summits, both over 13,000 feet in height. The first, Kupoltau, was a snow-dome and the second, Trezubetz (the Trident) a rock needle. Orubashi and Junomkara were also climbed but Adyr-su Bashi still held out a challenge. It had not been climbed from this side before; the only safe route was the north-east ridge which was on a huge scale but which might prove feasible to a fast-moving party of two.

Accordingly Hodgkin and I attempted it and succeeded in traversing the mountain from north to south in 15 hours. A series of three rock towers connected by sharp snow knife-edges had first to be overcome. The first two offered no great obstacles but the third was split in two by a gully of hard blue ice at an angle of 50 degrees. This was only 30 feet wide but it took well over half-an-hour to cut steps across. Beyond, steep rough granite slabs led to a horizontal section of ridge which comprised a succession of rock turrets separated by snow ridges. Some we clambered over and others we skirted by neat traverses, treating their loose foundations with great care. The final thousand feet to the summit was over rock, ice and then snow and required the greatest care. After eight hours without rest, we gained the summit rocks where a brew of tea and an all-embracing view put heart into us.

The descent to the south into the Adyr-su valley was quickly accomplished and after wandering through a wilderness of moraine pathless debris, we reached grass-land in the evening and wearily presented

ourselves at the uppermost holiday-camp. This was a reading-party of architecture students from Moscow, and they treated us just as hospitably as their compatriots from Kharkov. Our last climb in this district was completed and, returning to Tegenekli, we made preparations for the journey into Svanetia and the ascent of our major objective, the south peak of Ushba, the double-headed Matterhorn of the Caucasus, which had never been climbed by a British party.

On July 31 Beaumont and I set out with two heavily laden donkeys and a horse for the Betsho pass—the quickest route over the watershed into Svanetia. With some difficulty we persuaded the donkeys to go quite a long way up the moraine of the Central Ozengi Glacier before being forced



R. A. Hodgkin

Looking across the precipitous north face of Adyr-su Bashi to the summit of Elbruz, Europe's highest mountain, visible 20 miles away



R. A. Hodgkin

(Above) A reading-party of Moscow students encamped in the Adyr-su valley: the author teaches them how to tie climbing knots. (Below) Collectivization in Soviet mountaineering. One of the single-file parties of 30 or 40 Russians, a common sight in the Caucasus, crossing the Betsho Pass
M. S. Taylor



to relay the heavy loads ourselves to a small sloping platform below the Betsho snows, where we pitched camp in a thunderstorm. During the next two miserable days of rain we were joined by Taylor and Hodgkin, the latter having spent a wet and involuntary night in a rhododendron bush from which a party of well-meaning Russians with lanterns and a fanfare of bugles had attempted to rescue him. When the weather cleared, we managed to relay all the food and equipment over the pass; crossing into Georgia in a windy mist more reminiscent of the hills of Cumberland than the Caucasus. It was hard work, and with great relief we pitched camp that night on a knoll in the upper Betsho valley.

Travel in Svanetia is more difficult and infinitely more expensive than it was fifty years ago. Donkin, the great English climber, in a list of requirements for a Caucasus expedition gave "the greatest requisite of all—infinite patience". The only means of transport is by horses and donkeys, and there is a monopoly of these in each village. A few notes on the mentality of the Svanetians will explain our difficulties. They specialize in a sort of cow-like apathy and disinterested inactivity entirely divorced from our ideas of rush and hustle. The tempo of Svanetian life is typified by their odd sense of time. The Russian *saychas* (immediately) is used, in effect, to mean today; *teper* (now) for tomorrow, *zavtra* (tomorrow) for any time within a week and *posle zavtra* (the day after tomorrow) for never. Beaumont's task in talking to these people was particularly maddening, as instanced by this sample conversation:

CLIMBER: Where is the path for Mestia?

SVANETIAN: Yes.

CLIMBER (*making his point clearer*): Is there a path for Mestia over there?

SVANETIAN: From over there you cannot get to Mestia at all.

CLIMBER (*trying stealth*): Do you ever go to Mestia?

SVANETIAN (*off his guard*): Often, often.

CLIMBER: How do you get to Mestia?

SVANETIAN (*the light breaking in upon his shrivelled mental machinery*): Oh, you want to go to Mestia. Mestia is a fine place; there is a new road and bazaar.

CLIMBER: Which direction is Mestia?

SVANETIAN (*tiring of the subject*): What is your father's name?

The next few days were fraught with delays and minor tragedies, and without fail each day transport broke down and we had to finish with exhausting back-packing.

The valleys of Svanetia offered a pleasant contrast to those on the northern side. Once in the main valley, we passed through waist-high beds of many-coloured flowers, across dizzy slopes above the ravine of the Dola-chala torrent and through charming woods of birch, beech and ash. Lower down were tall pine-forests and parklands of hazel, alder and rhododendron.

All the Svanetian villages are similar, and while waiting for a horse in Mazeri, below Ushba, we had ample opportunity of studying the peasants. Eastern-looking sheep and long-horned cows grazed on the pastures, and the grain was carried from the patches of cultivated ground by ox-drawn sledges. In the villages, funny little pigs, chickens, children and dogs ran hither and thither, the latter occasionally menacing us with bared fangs. The newer houses were built of wood, but the majority were ages old, with thick stone walls; and although many were in ruins, they were all inhabited, some having only three walls with one side open to the world, affording a cross-section of domestic life. Every ruin and every group of houses was dominated by a square white tower some 50 feet high with a battlemented top. Each village presented a picturesque forest of these towers, relics of an early Svanetian defence programme of the days when each



R. A. Hodgkin

R. A. Hodgkin



Mestia, capital of Svanetia. The newer houses are built of wood; the older ones have thick stone walls and are dominated by square stone watch-towers—

—some 50 feet high, with battle-mented tops; relics of an early Svanetian defence programme of the days when each village was liable to attack by its neighbour

village was liable to attack by its neighbour.

We found a ruined chapel in Tetmash with curious Byzantine paintings on its dark and dingy walls and a moth-eaten priest's robe hanging on a screen. Outside was a broken cross tilted at a ridiculous angle and a graveyard overgrown with rank grass. The whole presented a mute testimony to the passing of the Church in Russia.

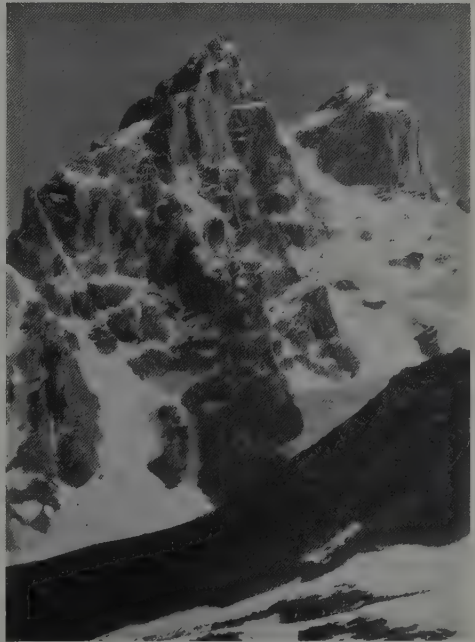
We soon established camp at the head of the Gul valley under the eastern precipices of the south peak of Ushba (15,409 feet). We proposed to climb the mountain by its south face, which consists of an upper and a lower snow-field separated by a 500-foot girdle of vertical granite, the Red Wall. On previous occasions this crucial point had been passed by a difficult and dangerous route at its western edge, the Red Corner, and we had hopes of forcing a more direct route to the summit by the steep rocks at its eastern edge.

We first climbed a small peak nearby called Gulba, in order to study the line of the route, and during the descent I became an involuntary participant in a stone-fall, sustaining a number of cuts and bruises which put me out of action for the next five days. The others set off next day in threatening weather for Ushba, and, on reaching the base of the Red Wall, had to seek the shelter of their little bivouac tent as a thunderstorm broke. It raged half the night, and next day snow was still driving about; so they had to descend before their retreat was cut off. After a day of rest, a second attempt was made. A more peaceful night was spent in the same place, and next day Hodgkin found the key to the ascent by making a very hard traverse onto the exposed east face. After three hours of very steep and difficult climbing, the Red Wall was passed and the upper snow-field gained. Easier climbing led to the summit where they were rewarded by a magnificent view. Through breaks in the clouds they caught glimpses

of the twin-peaked domes of Elbruz, the long gentle chain of the Laila peaks and the great ice precipices of Shkara, Janga, Katuintau and Tetnuld set against the dark background of Dychtau, Mishirgitau and Koshtantau. Across the gap and at an equal height was the snow-cap of Ushba's north peak.

The descent was rapid, the more difficult rocks being passed by sliding down on the doubled rope. After another night at the bivouac, they came down to camp on the third day, and I had by then sufficiently recovered to cross the glacier to greet them.

For the next three days we forsook the comparative ease and simplicity of mountaineering for the trials and tribulations of Svanetian travel. We crossed the beautiful lawns of the Bal Ridge and dropped



Prof. von Ficker

Ushba, 'the double-headed Matterhorn of the Caucasus'. Note the Red Wall, a granite barrier separating the lower snow-field from the upper, by which access was gained to the south peak



M. S. Taylor

The summit of Gulba, with the cloud-capped peaks of Ushba behind. To the left are the sheer rock precipices which had to be traversed in order to reach the south peak

down into the Ingur valley. At Latal, we branched off up the Mulkhura valley and reached Mestia, the capital of Svanetia, in darkness. Before we were able to establish a camp in a beautiful flower garden above the Zanner glacier, we had been robbed in our tents at night and, next day, fleeced by a pair of heartless donkey-drivers.

From here Taylor and I set out to climb the north face of Tetnuld (15,918 feet) by a route entirely on ice and snow as a contrast to the ascent of Ushba. We got the first view of our objective from the East Zanner Glacier. Above us rose a perfect inverted parabola of snow and ice,

crowned with a hanging rim of séracs. Its upper part was hung with ice-bulges, and the ice falling from them had scored out flutings in the steep snow-slopes. To the left, and clear of the bulges, a slender scimitar-shaped ridge curved upwards to lose itself in a steep white wall above. The feasibility of this line of ascent turned on the question whether this wall was snow or ice.

Carrying three days' provisions and a light tent, we spent the first day in ascending the glacier and, after winding our way through the intricate ice-fall above, searched for a suitable bivouac



The north face of Tetnuld presented a contrasting precipice of ice and snow, scored by falling ice. A scimitar-shaped ridge led to the steep snow-wall seen at the upper left-hand side

M. S. Taylor

Wodgkin



On the scimitar ridge, above which may be discerned the snow-wall; beyond it, a band of rocks which were skirted to the right; and, higher still, the hanging rim of séracs below the summit. (The camera is tilted upwards)



site. Finally we pitched the tent in a snow hollow and, after a comfortable night, set out at dawn next day and crossed the very steep snow-slopes leading to the base of the scimitar ridge. Once on this, the climbing was superb and we soon gained the base of the great wall—which mercifully proved to be of snow: only a covering of a few inches on hard ice, but enough to support the spikes of our crampons. As we mounted steadily upwards, the surrounding rocks and glaciers sank below us and the vista of the great Bezingi peaks to the east gradually enlarged. We reached a band of rocks, but finding they were loose and icebound we skirted their base, climbed a difficult ice-gully and stood on the upper snows. Forty minutes later we gained the summit in a biting wind which soon forced us to shelter among some ice-blocks below. We descended the north-east face and, after negotiating a number of difficulties, gained our tent, and, packing up the equipment, raced down to the base-camp at dusk.

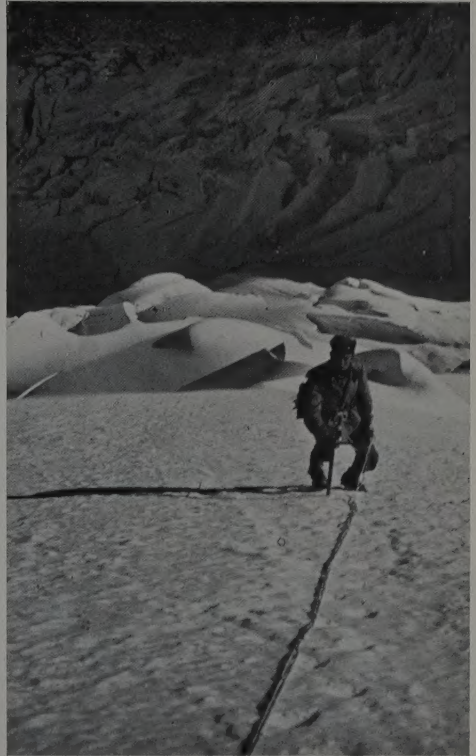
Two days later we jettisoned all surplus kit and set out on the final stage of our journey, the crossing of the Zanner pass. It was a long, monotonous slog over the uppersnow-fields, but when we reached the crest of the pass, the tedium suddenly left us as the great Bezingi wall burst into view. Rising from the depths of the Bezingi Glacier was a gleaming precipice of hanging glaciers and snow-slopes 8000 feet high. It culminated in a sharp ice-crest which for five miles never drops below 15,000 feet, rising to the 17,000 foot peak of Shkara at its eastern end. To the north, in sharp contrast, rose the rock pyramid of Dychtau, the second highest mountain in the Caucasus.

We descended into the Bezingi valley, and next day, at the end of a twenty-mile slog, managed to telephone (it took half a day to get through) to Intourist at Nalchik. On the day following, a twin-rear-wheeled Ford truck came up for us, and in it we

rattled to the end of our journey past ruined fortresses and through another great limestone gorge to the plain.

I hope that our modest expedition will encourage British mountaineers to continue with the pioneering which they suddenly relinquished in 1914. 'The grandest chain of ice mountains that Europe can claim' is still only superficially explored.

If you go to the Caucasus remember these points. One of the party must know a little Russian. Each man is allowed a spare set of equipment; take it, you will find out why when you get there. Do not try to travel, transport is difficult to get and exorbitant; stay in one district



M. S. Taylor

Scaling the snow-wall on the north face of Tetnuld. The camera is tilted downwards, and the East Zanner Glacier is seen far below



M. S. Taylor

The camp in a flower garden above the main Zanner glacier. The route to the Zanner pass lay up the rocks to the right of the ice-fall in the background

and climb from a central base-camp. Keep out of the valleys as much as possible; you get lethargic and fall a prey to pernicious germs. Take the majority of your mountain food out.

Although the transport of our food cost £25, we found that it would have been almost impossible to 'live on the land' in the mountains. Even in Svanetia, reputed to be a land flowing with milk and honey, we only managed to extract food from the natives with the utmost difficulty, and then at the most exorbitant prices. The rest of your food can be obtained through Intourist (food coupons 8s. 6d. each). You can pin your faith on Intourist, they know all about it now and will give you reliable service. Lastly,

and most important: make sure your base-camp tents have flysheets.

The cost (approximate) per man for a seven weeks' trip works out as follows:

	£	s.	d.
Equipment	10	0	0
Expenses in the mountains	17	0	0
Fare (third class): London — Tegenekli—Bezingi— London (including Russian food coupons)	32	0	0
Food: cost and transport	9	0	0
	<hr/>		
	£68	0	0

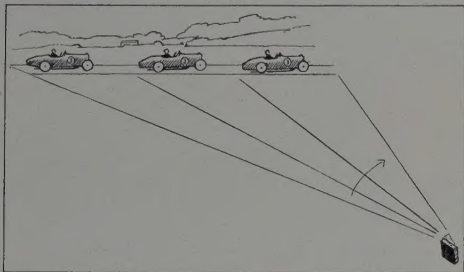
To this should be added expenses on the journey to the Polish border bringing the total to about £72.

PHOTOGRAPHIC NOTES

Edited by F. S. Smythe

14. CINÉ-PHOTOGRAPHY (I)

Many photographers who have already developed a high degree of skill in taking 'still' pictures are now starting to make 'movies'. 'Movie snapshots,' in fact, are becoming increasingly popular with the



Shooting a moving Object. Swing camera round without jerking it and try to keep the object in centre of viewfinder. Rapidly moving objects should be shot obliquely

approach of saturation point in the sale of high precision cameras. The perfect results obtainable in inexpensive colour ciné-photography have added to its appeal for amateurs, in the continued absence of the colour-paper print.

Because of the small size of the picture area on a 16mm. or 8mm. ciné-film, high precision ciné-photography is the rule rather than the exception. A ciné-camera with an aperture of f.9 can be purchased for half the sum usually paid for a high precision still camera.

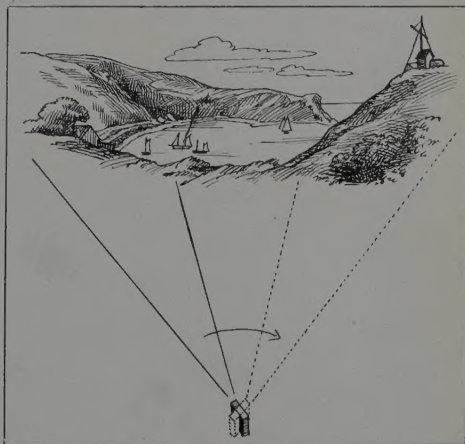
The cinema, as a medium of expression, was kidnapped in its infancy and brought up in Hollywood as the offspring of exploitation and big business. True artists, however, in all parts of the world soon discovered it as their chosen medium. In spite of the excesses so brilliantly described in Belfrage's *Promised Land*, men such as Griffiths, Chaplin, Pudovkin, Eisenstein and Claire became associated with the cinema because they recognized in it both an intellectual experiment and a new form of art.

In every art there is a technique which must be mastered before ease of self-expression can be achieved. In this new series we shall try to describe as simply as possible the technique of film production and the intricacies of ciné-cameras and films.

'It's as easy as taking snapshots!' say the advertisers—in all honesty. It is, in fact, just as easy and as difficult as you like to make it. The more you explore the theories of 'filmic' interpretation, cutting, montage and rhythm, the more intriguing you find them.

Just as in snapshotting, so in ciné-photography, there are fundamental rules which must be obeyed before you can make good pictures. The camera, of course, must be held still, unless deliberate 'panning' or 'trucking' shots are being made. Any such movement, if made, must be carried out *slowly*. Only experience can show the novice how extremely slowly he must move his camera in a panning shot if he is to avoid the 'giddy' effect easily recognisable upon the screen.

No shot should be longer than 10 seconds. This does not mean that all shots must be 10 seconds. In a correctly edited and cut film, the length of the shots should indicate a 'rhythm' which has been decided upon by the editor as being suitable to the story. This refers, however, to editing and not to shooting, it being a common experience that the final length of a carefully made film works out at approximately one-third of the total material shot.



Panning, i.e. taking a panoramic shot. The camera must be moved evenly and very slowly if a 'giddy' effect is to be avoided

Chiefs in COCOA LAND

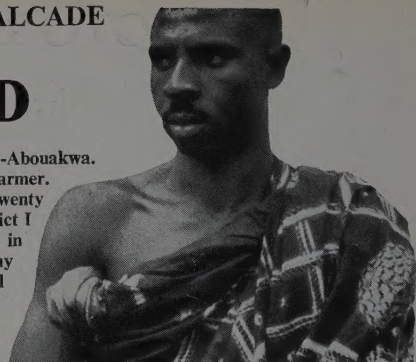


The name of our Paramount Chief is Sir Ofori Atta. In the picture above, he is seated on his throne beneath the State Umbrella, and he is wearing one of his several crowns. The men about him are the Elders or Councillors. Sir Ofori Atta is a wise ruler. He is a member of the Legislative Council of the Gold Coast, the colony often called Cocoa-land, because it grows half the world's supply of Cocoa and supplies Cadburys—the biggest cocoa and chocolate factory in the world.



Although our women work, as you can see for yourself, they are held in high honour with us, and descent is through the mother. Old women often have great power. It is a system that worked well before the first white man was seen in Coccoaland. It works well still.

The farmer shown with his family on the right is a neighbour of mine. He sits in the middle. Now, just for fun, see if you can pick out the boys from the girls.* Like everybody in our fertile district, their chief crop is Cocoa for the Bournville market. That is our livelihood—and a good one. Cadburys won't buy your Cocoa unless it is very good Cocoa. But they pay good money.



I am a Chief in Akim-Abouakwa. I am also a Cocoa farmer. There are more than twenty villages in the district I rule. I hold a court in my village. From my court there is an appeal to the Paramount Chief.



Here is the Palace of Sir Ofori Atta. Not, perhaps, much like your Buckingham Palace, but big and comfortable, with electric light and telephones, for Sir Ofori Atta has several times visited London.



These are the Drums. They play a very important part in Coccoaland. In my district, when I want to call a Palaver, I order my drummers to send out the Drum message. It can be heard through the forest for many miles. Then all my people, nearly all of whom are Cocoa farmers, assemble in obedience to me.



* Look at the chief (top right) and you will know how the men dress.